The Education Digest

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Volume IV DECEMBER, 1938 Number 4

PROGRESSIVES' PROGRESS

In Time

TWENTY years ago Progressive Education was a tiny and, in many eyes, a crackpot movement quarantined in a handful of private schools. Today it covers much more territory. Now predominantly a public-school affair, Progressive Education has strongholds in the suburbs of greater New York, Chicago, and Los Angeles, is transforming such major public-school systems as those of Denver, San Francisco, Los Angeles, New York City, Detroit. No U. S. school has completely escaped its influence.

For this the Progressive Education Association is chiefly to be thanked or blamed. Twenty years old this fall, P.E.A. numbers only 10,500 of the nation's 1,000,000 educators, but its 33-year-old executive secretary, Frederick Lovatt Redefer, was able to boast truthfully last week: "We are no longer a rebel group." Its leading critic, white-thatched Professor William Chandler Bagley of Columbia's Teachers College, concedes that this little group today wields a dominant influence in U. S. education.

Alarmed at Progressive Education's rapid spread, a handful of educational traditionalists, including Professor Bagley, last February organized a group called the Essentialists, issued a manifesto. [See the EDUCATION DIGEST, October, 1938, pp. 1-5.—*Editor.*] Their indictment: the new movement has made U. S. education "effeminate," has made U. S. children inferior spellers and readers. Their proposal: more attention to discipline, systematic work, "essentials" (such as the three R's). This platform raised a cheer here and there, but the Essentialists have not yet slowed up the Progressive march.

What it is.—Biggest worry of the Progressives is that their program is spreading too fast, too thinly. For genuine Progressive Education is still available only to pupils in expensive private schools or the public schools of swank suburbs. Most bandwagon-jumping schools have swallowed chunks of Progressive methods, little Progressive philosophy. One of the reasons: No two people agree on what Progressive Education is.

John Dewey is regarded as the father of Progressive Education, but actually he was neither its first philosopher nor its first schoolmaster. First great modern philosopher was Rousseau, who, in *Emile* (1762), advocated a child-centered school. First Progressive school system in

the U. S. was started in 1875 by the late Colonel Francis Wayland Parker in Quincy, Massachusetts. Last week in Manhattan was celebrated the sixtieth anniversary of the second, the Ethical Culture School, founded in 1878 by Felix Adler.

Dewey, in his books and laboratory school at University of Chicago (1896-1904), coordinated earlier ideas and experiments, formulated and carried out a complete philosophy of education. New devices have been developed since Dewey, but still the core of Progressive Education are his central ideas: that children should be treated as individuals, a child's interests and needs should shape the curriculum, children should learn by doing (*i.e.*, taking trips, building, painting), should practice democracy, should learn to solve the same kind of problems they will meet after school.

Today in a typical Progressive school children call their teachers by their first names, treat them as friends instead of masters. In place of fixed desks and seats are chairs, workbenches. Instead of textbooks, pupils use newspapers, magazines, reference books, observation trips. Instead of studying subjects in separate capsules, as reading, spelling, arithmetic, they have projects.

Thus, having had their interest aroused by Indian blankets a teacher has brought into their classroom, pupils may decide to study Indians. They form communities, go to libraries, museums, parks to find out what Indians ate, where and how they lived. Later they report to their classmates, build tepees, write and produce plays. In the same way they study boats, farming, Egypt. In doing so they have been learning to read, write, count, multiply.

In a Progressive school, children also spend part of their time dancing, singing, making musical instruments, telling stories. Instead of doing calisthenics, they play games. Result of all this is that a modern Progressive school is noisy, apparently chaotic, but pupils are too busy to be naughty. When they are naughty or sulky, they are sent not to a beferruled principal but to a psychiatrist, who tries to find out what is wrong at home.

Teachers.—If U. S. education, out of step with the industrial Twentieth Century, was ripe for change when Dewey arrived, it was not yet ready to plump for any such apparently helter-skelter scheme as this and Progressive Education made little headway before 1918. That fall one Stanwood Cobb, an instructor in Annapolis' severely traditional U. S. Naval Academy, rounded up a few progressive educators, formed the Progressive Education Association.

To finance research and advertising for Progressive Education, P.E.A. needed money. It did not need to look outside its own group, for one of its members was gentle, modest Mrs. Avery Coonley, daughter of Capitalist Dexter Mason Ferry (Ferry Seeds), who was running a

little Progressive school in Downer's Grove, Illinois. Watered by Mrs. Coonley's gifts, P.E.A. flourished and Progressive Education burst into bloom.

Many a new Progressive school opened. Landmarks were Miss Helen Parkhurst's Dalton School in Manhattan, which introduced the famed Dalton Plan of work contracts for individual pupils, and Carleton Washburne's system in Winnetka, Illinois, which became in 1919 the first public Progressive school system in the U. S.

Today the Dalton School no longer uses the original Dalton Plan and Winnetka is considered a little backward by Progressive educators. Their present idols are Superintendent Paul Misner's schools in Glencoe, Illinois, which have achieved a remarkably close tie-up with the community's general life, and Superintendent Alexander Jerry Stoddard's high schools in Denver, where the "core curriculum" (*i.e.,* building all studies around core subjects, such as "Modern Living") is in full flower.

These shifts of affection illustrate the one fact on which all Progressive educators agree: Progressive Education is not standardized and they hope it never will be. Cited by Executive Secretary Redefer as a horrible example of devotion to a device instead of progress is the doggedness of a Progressive school teacher who one day hit upon the momentarily happy idea of having Bozo, a pet dog, write imaginary letters to her pupils. Her pupils have been learning reading from Bozo for 15 years.

Because Progressive Education is not standardized, it makes great demands on its teachers who, besides having learning, skill and wholesome personalities, must be resourceful, creative. The history of Progressive Education is the history of great teachers. Mainspring of the Progressive movement today, however, is not its teachers but its propagandists, a group of youngsters whose job it is to sell Progressive Education. Top-notch propagandists are Stanford University's Curriculum Expert Paul R. Hanna; Ethical Culture School's Director Vivian T. Thayer (Secondary school curriculum expert); Alice V. Keliher, Chairman of P.E.A.'s Commission on Human Relations; Mental Hygienist Caroline Zachry. Chief organizer and propagandist, however, is Executive Secretary Redefer.

Portrait of a progressive.—Like many another Progressive educator, Frederick Lovatt ("Red") Redefer is a Quaker. He was born, however, the ninth child of a poor Methodist minister, in Haverstraw, New York. Graduated from traditional public schools in Brooklyn and Great Neck, Long Island, he got a civil engineer's degree at Swarthmore and a chance to make his fortune in business, but he decided to return to Swarthmore to study education.

He won highest honors there, taught for a year at Progressive Oak

Lane Country Day School in Philadelphia, became at 26 superintendent of Glencoe's schools. Archpatriot Elizabeth Dilling, who lives in nearby Kenilworth, soon listed Pacifist Redefer in her "red network." When Glencoe, a rich Chicago suburb, was frightened by Depression into dropping art, music, and manual training from its curriculum, Redefer quit as superintendent, became in 1932 P.E.A.'s executive secretary.

P.E.A. also had been stricken by Depression, was $11,000 in the hole, had only 4,000 members. Redefer saw that Progressive Education's future must be in the public schools. Dynamic Willard W. Beatty, then the association's president, and other Progressives were beginning to prevail upon the Rockefeller General Education Board and Carnegie Foundation to finance large-scale, public-school studies by P.E.A. commissions, which in five years have received $1,000,000 from the General Education Board alone.

Redefer went into the field, organized regional conferences for teachers. Unlike the usual cut and dried educational convention, but alive with questions and informal discussion in which everyone takes part, these conferences today draw 5,000 teachers and parents at a sitting.

In Manhattan Frederick Redefer's headquarters are off Riverside Drive in a four-story brownstone building, filled with books and Progressive pupils' paintings. In his spare time he goes to parties, skis, plays tennis, sometimes rises at 6 A.M. to go figure-skating.

Can they spell?—If Progressive educators are idealists, they are at least shrewd enough not to give their opponents tangible ammunition. They do not leave their pupils' progress in reading, writing and reckoning entirely to projects and chance but come down on their youngsters with concentrated individual drill in those subjects when necessary. They have also given much attention of late to testing their pupils, giving an accounting of Progressive Education's results. Last week, in three separate tests, the most searching of their kind ever made, Progressive pupils came through with flying colors:

1. A young professor at Ohio State University, J. Wayne Wrightstone, compared some 500 youngsters, carefully matched in intelligence, family background, calibre of their teachers, etc., in matched Progressive and traditional schools.* As has almost every examiner before him, he found that the Progressive pupils were ahead in reading, spelling, language, arithmetic.

To test previously unmeasured intangibles on which Progressives set great store, he invented ingenious new tests, using observation of pupils as well as pencil and paper quizzes. Results: Progressive pupils

* *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices.* New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University.

scored higher than those in traditional schools in knowledge of current affairs and people, honesty, cooperation, leadership, ability in creative writing and art, critical thinking, breadth of interests. Traditional school pupils knew more about rules of health, Progressive pupils were huskier and healthier.

2. From Lincoln School in Manhattan, perhaps the top-ranking Progressive school in the U. S., which is subsidized by Rockefeller money and had two Rockefeller boys as students, groups of pupils last year went to visit coal mines, steel mills, farms, TVA. This experiment was financed by the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation. Last week, after careful tests, Ohio State's Dr. Louis Rath, an evaluator for P.E.A., reported that in a ten-day trip and six weeks of related classroom study, high-school juniors gained 15 percent in consistency of their thinking, became markedly more liberal, matured two years in thinking power. [See this issue of the EDUCATION DIGEST, pp. 6-10.—*Editor.*]

3. Most elaborate test is one being conducted by P.E.A.'s Commission on the Relation of School and College. This is the famed "30-schools experiment," comparing achievements of boys and girls from Progressive schools, admitted to college without examination, with those of matched graduates of conventional schools. Last week Commission Chairman Wilford M. Aikin, of Ohio State, reported that by the second year of this five-year trial, Progressive students were doing a little better in marks than conventional ones, were using their college opportunities more wisely.

The meaning of Progressive Education lies deeper, however, than questions of efficiency. For the first principle and the religion of Progressive Educators is democracy, and their biggest question: how to achieve it. On the left wing a group thinks that Progressive Education should be chiefly concerned with the social order. Opposed are those who are chiefly concerned about individual development. Recently Progressive Education's No. 1 present-day philosopher, Ohio State's Professor Boyd Henry Bode, in a book called *Progressive Education at the Crossroads,* declared that nothing but chaos could result from exclusive attention to children's individual needs, interests and learning. Progressive schools, he insisted, must lead their pupils to oppose dictatorship and make democracy "a way of life," and he defined democracy as "continuous extension of common interests."

[*Reported from* Time, *XXXII (October 31, 1938), 31-35.*]

AN ELEVENTH GRADE FIELD STUDY: THE COAL INDUSTRY

G. Derwood Baker

In the Educational Research Bulletin

FOR several years the Lincoln School, Teachers College, has been attempting to widen the area of field studies for high school students to include more of the realities of the social order. Last year this work was expanded by a generous grant from the Alfred P. Sloan Foundation, which made it possible to take groups of pupils far afield to study various phases of socio-economic life.

The eleventh-grade study-tour herein reported was not an impromptu venture. Several years earlier the school faculty came to the conclusion that textbook study of complex social and economic problems was unsatisfactory, that the only way students might come to a real understanding of the Industrial Revolution, for example, would be to make a complete analysis of one or two basic American industries, supplementing that study with field observation and conferences with persons able to interpret technological and statistical data and to represent the conflicting interests of workers, owners, brokers, retailers, and consumers. This conviction that direct experience as a method in secondary education should be given a trial, led to preliminary discussions with industrialists and sociologists, and coal mining was finally chosen as the most suitable industry to grapple with.

At Lincoln School, general courses have been set up at each grade-level in the secondary school. In the eleventh grade, the general course is called "Foundations of Modern Life" and attempts to trace those historical developments which have significantly molded modern society. The latter half of the year has been devoted to the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, with special emphasis not only on the political and cultural revolutions, but on the technological as well.

By March of this year the whole grade had studied the industrial revolution and approached the consideration of a machine dominated world. The usual procedure would have been group reading and discussion of the problems raised by the new industrialism, with individuals and small groups, according to special interests, going deep into specific issues. More than two-thirds of the class followed exactly that course under the English, social studies, and art teachers who formed the cooperative teaching unit. The others, 15 in number, were formed into a special group to make a realistic field study of the coal industry, with a glimpse at steel, the experience to be used as a stimulus and point of departure for a consideration of the issues which are the source of the greatest conflicts in contemporary life.

In selecting the pupils to make the trip every effort was made to create a group which would be a fair sampling of the class in ability, backgrounds, interests, and social adjustment.

During the spring vacation one teacher was sent to Washington to interview a dozen experts in various phases of bituminous coal mining. They checked the proper locations to be visited, key people to meet, underlying problems which should be investigated, and made suggestions for the bibliography to be used by students in preparatory and followup studies. Two important supplements to the tour were developed in conference in Washington. One was the plan to visit a steel plant, as a necessary preparation for an understanding of the interrelation of the coal and steel industries. The other was a plan to visit Washington, after the experience in the coal area, for interviews with government agencies.

Making arrangements for the group to visit a steel plant was difficult. Many of the steel companies were shut down at the time, and in others relations between labor and the companies were so tense that all outsiders were excluded; even the unions would lend no cooperation. Successful entree was finally arranged through the help of a Lincoln School parent and Pittsburgh newspaper men. They were able to arrange for our group to visit the Jones-Laughlin plant at Aliquippa, Pa. It was a most fortunate arrangement because two years before this company had gone through a bitter labor conflict. Last year, however, the company accepted the CIO as the representative of its workers and is basing its labor policy on cooperation with the unions and educating the public on the problems of the industry.

Most of the contemplated visits in the coal area involved small operating companies under which labor and living conditions were almost uniformly bad. To avoid giving a one-sided view we arranged through the Rockefeller interests in New York to visit the Consolidation Coal Company of Fairmont, W. Va., one of the largest and most forward-looking, in its social policies, of the coal companies.

The experience of the 15 boys and girls was compressed into eight and a half weeks; two and a half weeks of preparatory study; nine days in the field; and five weeks of follow-up study.

The preliminary work included the study, broadly, of mining, of coal, and of the transition from the Early Industrial Revolution to the Power Age, and a more intensive study of coal mining and the economic and social problems relating to it.

The itinerary of the group in the field was as follows:

Friday, April 15—By railroad, New York to Philadelphia. Conference with the Executive Secretary of the Friends' Service Committee, a writer on mining and an authority on the area to be visited. Discussion of

the significance of the mining communities and how to study them. Conference on world labor problems with a former delegate to the International Labor Office at Geneva, now Regional Director of the CIO. Supper with an expert from the Textile Workers Union. Discussion of health hazards in industry and recent strike history in Western Pennsylvania.

Saturday—Arrive Pittsburgh. By bus to the rolling mill of the Jones-Laughlin Co. in Aliquippa. Complete inspection. Conference on notes and records.

Easter Sunday—Easter service in the Croatian Roman Catholic Church in Millvale with steel workers. This church contains the renowned Vanka Murals. Remained as luncheon guests of the priest. Visits within Pittsburgh.

Monday—By railroad, Pittsburgh to Morgantown, W. Va., following the Monongahela Valley. First visit to Scott's Run, Pursglove Mine No. 2. Study of maps and tools, talks with miners and foremen. Walk across mountain to see individual "farm mines." Shelter in miner's home during thunderstorm. Supper in mining camp. Attended community meeting at Jere, abandoned mine. Discussed problems of unemployment with those who had felt it for seven years.

Tuesday—Study conference, analyzing experiences. Visit to University of West Virginia High School, many of whose students are children of miners. Luncheon in a company store. Observation and explanation of unmechanized mine operation, with miners as teachers. Discussion with mine owner of the problems of a small operator in an isolated community. Call at the home of a coal broker for a discussion of selling problems, American and world commerce in coal.

Wednesday—By coal truck to Arthurdale. Visits to schools, shops, homes, community center.

Thursday—Talk by the executive of the Upper Monongahela Valley Association. Discussion of larger community problems. Evening—at home of lawyer interested in mining problems. Discussion of coal with host, local sponsor of Arthurdale, engineer from Bureau of Mines, organizer of local CIO, local university professors, unemployed miner, County Health Officer, workers from Juvenile Court, Mothers' Aid Office, and WPA.

Friday—Breakfast with officers of United Mine Workers at Fairmont. Observation and explanation of a mechanized mine. By train to Consolidation Coal Company properties. Inspection of special processes, health and recreation centers, housing, and safety organization. Dinner in Fairmont (arranged by Consolidation) preceded by discussion with officials of big corporation problems and their attitude toward federal regulation.

Saturday—Washington, D. C. Conferences at National Bituminous

Coal Commission and at United Mine Workers' headquarters, including an informal conversation with John L. Lewis. Conference at National Housing Commission.

Sunday—Conference with WPA Director of Research on Scott's Run Mining area; comparing of conditions in 1935 and 1938; problem of unemployment extended from Scott's Run to all youth, including Lincoln students. Return to New York.

Clearing notes and planning permanent records occupied one week after the return. Pupils compared data and checked with source materials. Questions on coal and steel were then mimeographed and answered in writing with the aid of notes and materials from the reserve shelves. Reports and exhibits were prepared. The most common student questions were organized into a series for analysis and discussion. What is democracy? What is capitalism? How does socialism differ from communism? What is fascism? If it is as collectivistic as communism, how do they differ? Are nationalism and imperialism in all these societies? What is imperialism besides wanting more land? Is it the most important cause of war? How important are coal and steel in nationalism and imperialism?

All these questions had to be treated simply, but the economic dilemmas the students had seen clarified and deepened meanings. These discussions were scattered through but were brought into carefully planned emphasis the last week.

SOME EVALUATIONS OF THE TRIP

LOUIS RATHS

It may be wondered if the absence from school entailed by the field study did not result in serious losses with respect to the objectives of the school program. An unusually complete test program showed this to be untrue. Differences between the field-study group and the group that stayed at home were slight; in several instances they favored the field group. In particular, the field group made significant gains in the area of social attitudes.

The particular test used in this connection, *A Scale of Beliefs,* is made up of 93 pairs of statements referring to democracy, labor and unemployment, government regulation and control, race, nationalism, and militarism. Half the statements are *liberal,* implying such positions as concern for human welfare, racial tolerance, a defense of certain democratic rights and procedures; the other half are *conservative,* and, in essence, deny a concern for human

welfare and fundamental democratic rights and affirm privilege, autocratic procedures, race prejudice, nationalism, and militarism. For example:

55. The President of the United States should always be a Protestant.

155. The religious affiliations of candidates for public office should not influence their selection.

Confusion about a given issue is shown by acceptance of both the liberal and conservative statements concerning it, and was scored as inconsistency.

This test was given to the field-study group before the trip, and to the whole class at the end of the year. The results expressed in percentage follow:

	Field-Study Group		Home Group
	Before (April 4)	After (May 26)	(May 26)
Liberalism	65	80	60
Conservatism	7	7	12
Uncertainty	24	13	28
Consistency	60	75	57

The reader will note that Lincoln students are, in general, a liberal group, with little conservatism in their beliefs, but some uncertainty. The homogeneity of their social beliefs is indicated by the close similarity of the scores of the field-study group before they left and the final scores of the home group. But the field-study group became much more liberal. This was true in each area tested, the gains being largest in attitudes toward government control and regulation where the interests of a large number of people are concerned. These changes can not be attributed to decreasing conservatism because the latter scores remained about the same. The shift to liberalism came in those areas where the students were formerly uncertain. The gains in liberalism were accompanied by a great decrease in uncertainty and a rise in consistency.

Progressive educators have long assumed that the results they sought were not subject to measurement, but here is the evidence of an astounding development on the part of 15 boys and girls in a relatively short period.

G. Derwood Baker is now Principal of the Fieldston School of the Ethical Culture Society, New York City. Louis Raths is on the staffs of the Progressive Education Association and of Ohio State University. Reported from the Educational Research Bulletin, *XVII (October, 1938), 173-208.*

MASSACHUSETTS is the only state in the Union which does not have state standards for the certification of teachers.

TRANSFER OF TRAINING

PETER SANDIFORD
In The School (Canada)

WHILE preparing an article on the above subject for Monroe's *Encyclopedia of Education,* I have read or scanned 810 references on the subject. Such a wealth of material shows that the subject is of perennial interest and so it should be, for on the conclusions we reach in regard to transfer much of our philosophy of education must be based.

The problem can be stated quite simply: If we study or practice a subject *A,* we expect a specific improvement in *A.* This we call *learning.* Beyond this specific improvement we usually find a spread of the effect of study or practice which enables us either to learn or to perform *B, C, D,* etc., more easily than would otherwise have been the case. This we call *transfer of training.*

Formerly, the amount of transfer was regarded as of the 100-percent variety. The Greeks, for instance, considered that mind was an indivisible whole and that any training naturally affected the whole of mental life. By the Middle Ages, the unitary mind of the Greek had become a group of faculties; but within each faculty—reasoning, judgment, memory, attention, observation, etc.—the transfer was perfect. Not until the nineteenth century was the unitary character of faculties challenged. Memory, for instance, was shown not to be a unitary whole but rather a collection of specific memories. Faculties gave place to traits and capacities and powers, each of them independent of the other and each needing a specific training. Thus arose the bond or reaction-hypothesis as expounded by Thorndike and others. Transfer according to the beliefs of the day changed from an interlocking of 100 percent to practically zero. However, it should be noted that if transfer did take place, the problem of how it is done was not essentially altered by the reduction in the size of the unit—from mind as a whole to faculties, and from faculties to comminuted elements or traits.

Yet, the belief persisted that in some way or other training in a specific field had a general or surplus effect. Training in arithmetic not only helped algebra because arithmetical operations are needed in algebra, but arithmetic had an over-effect, educational in character, which was poetically described as a training of the "muscles of the mind." And some subjects are better for this purpose than others. As a matter of fact, every time we select one subject rather than another for a curriculum, we are subscribing to the doctrine of transfer.

James upset the complacency of educators in their time-honored beliefs in transfer, when he found that memorizing the whole of *Para-*

dise Lost did not speed up his learning of Victor Hugo's *Satyr*. While the experiment cannot be defended on scientific grounds, nevertheless it is important historically. However, when Thorndike and Woodworth planned more elaborate researches and used a number of subjects, the paucity of transfer effects began to be realized. Practice in estimating areas of one shape did not always improve the ability to estimate areas of other shapes. There could be negative and zero transfer as well as positive. This study is also historically important in that it first suggested how transfer takes place. The mechanism or agency consisted of the identical elements existing in the branches experimented with. These identities were identities of *substance* (matter) and *procedure* (method). Thus geography transferred to history because maps studied in geography were also found in history textbooks. The study of French would help the study of German, because the methods used in the study of the two languages are very similar.

A year or two after the turn of the century, Bagley suggested a third identity, *ideal* or *aim*, and showed that ideals of neatness and of tenacity of purpose were transferable from one field to another.

Judd, however, as a result of several experiments, thought that the mechanism of transfer was the conscious *generalization of experience*. This bears some resemblance to the training of faculties of the medieval schoolmen—a belief that still survives among members of the staffs of many universities.

Orata, and later Thorndike, suggested that transfer was a *function of intelligence*, and Sandiford has defended the thesis that *language* is the chief mechanism or agency of transfer.

Summing up the findings of experiments during the past half century, we may say:

1. The transfer effects of training may be negative, zero, or positive. Where interference results are reported (in about 3 percent of the studies), the practice was invariably of short duration, and might have swung over to the positive side if the experiment had been continued over a longer period. Where very high transfers (around 75 percent) are reported, the experiments are of the cross-education type and are really not transfer experiments within the limits of our definition. Generally speaking, the transfer is usually positive (in about 90 percent of the cases), and ranges usually between zero and 20 percent. *A positive but modest transfer may usually be expected.*

2. The transfer effects are higher than average when (*a*) the subjects are high in intelligence, (*b*) are young, and (*c*) when the testing materials have many elements in common, especially elements of content and method.

3. There is little ground for the

belief that an all-round training of the intellect results from the specific training of any part of it. Transfer, if positive, is usually low. Consequently, it is safer for educators to depend on specific training and practice than to expect results at second hand through transfer. However, we should not overlook the possibility of teaching specifically for transfer.

4. The few studies in the field of morals indicate that the belief in wide general moral training is misplaced.

5. Unfortunately, there are few experimental studies of emotional transfer. In practical life, to secure the development of republicans, democrats, conservatives, liberals, communists, fascists, and nazis, great dependence is placed on emotional spread. It is more than probable that transfer in the field of emotion is greater than in the fields of intellect and motor ability.

After reading widely in the literature, my final judgment is that transfer is a real factor in education. Otherwise our educational procedures would be without foundation. But the amount of transfer is usually so small that it is better to depend on direct training of an ability rather than hope to obtain it indirectly by transfer. For instance, training in Latin undoubtedly contributes to learning in English, but if we wish to obtain good results in English, it is more profitable to spend time on English rather than Latin. However, it may be possible to teach Latin in such a way that its influence on English will be greater than is usually obtained which may be described as teaching specifically for transfer.

It is my belief that there is enough in transfer to justify educators sticking to a rather conservative type of curriculum in which the hard subjects—Latin, mathematics, science, history, modern languages—still find a place, at least for the more intellectually-minded of our pupils. Nowhere in transfer experiments is there evidence supporting the theory of Progressive Education that the selection of subject matter according to the whims and fancies of an immature human being results in a beneficial transfer, and, therefore, in education. We ought to distinguish between work and play in education, for it is through work that transfer takes place.

[*Peter Sandiford is a member of the faculty of the Ontario College of Education, University of Toronto. Reported from* The School (Canada), *XXVII (October, 1938), 93-97.*]

NEW YORK CITY first-year high school students were shown the sights of the city from a municipally owned ferryboat recently as part of their civics course.

PSYCHOLOGICAL BASIS FOR CURRICULUM TRENDS

MAY V. SEAGOE

In the Curriculum Journal

THERE are seven principles stressed by psychologists which have been applied to learning in the emerging curriculum.

1. *Purpose is an essential element in the learning process.*—From the earliest of the British associationists there has been a stress on learning as a stamping-in of a correct solution. Later research dealing with problem-solving, or the process of finding the first correct solution, indicates that purpose on the part of the child is essential before any solution can be obtained, and obviously before any desired response can be stamped in. This means that pupil interests have value in the learning process, and that where interests do not exist they must be built before content is approached. It means that teaching as repetition without interest is a thing of the past.

2. *Practice prior to understanding is wasteful.*—Experiment indicates that memorization of nonsense syllables requires eight to sixteen times as long as meaningful material. Consider your own difficulty in memorizing the following, which is similar in length to the simplest nursery rhyme:

Inka rima rinka ro
Banim bokie salib so
Bick bock, sec sim
Thigger, thogger, donner dim.

We have never asked children to memorize nonsense verses. But we have asked them to memorize poems, multiplication tables, rules of grammar, dates and capitals, and to observe rules of conduct before any meaning for such items existed in the child's mind. Progressive education holds that understanding is of primary importance in any learning process.

3. *The greater the activity of the learner, the more effective the learning.*—A wealth of research material shows that, beyond a minimum reading, the greater the amount of time given to attempted recall as opposed to rereading, the more effective the learning. It has also been shown that opportunity for self-activity is directly related to pupil interest.

4. *Some emotional concomitant in learning is better than none, but too great emotion disrupts learning.*—Teachers use this principle constantly. They praise one child and correct another; they arrange situations to give social satisfaction and to permit normal social disapproval to be felt. They never ignore a sincere effort. They do not protect children from normal emotional crises, but they do try to prevent the disruption of personality that comes from repeated failure or conflict beyond the child's power of adjustment.

5. *Either too much or too little guidance is detrimental to learning.*—Teachers have long assumed that they were essential parts of the

learning situation, and it is reassuring to know that research does show that tuition is helpful. On the other hand, tuition that is manual rather than verbal, or detailed and long-continued, is actually detrimental. Too much guidance results in artificial dependence; too little, in failure to grow. Guidance is best given early in the learning process, and it is best given verbally or symbolically, so that the child must still assume some responsibility for working out the solution. For the teacher this principle means a nice balance between complete dictation and the attitude expressed by the answer, "This is your problem."

6. *Individual enterprise results in the greatest growth per individual, but group enterprise results in the best finished product.*—This is a point on which there was apparent conflict for some time. Maller and other psychologists found competition to be a stronger motivating force than cooperation. Various anthropologists countered with descriptions of societies where the findings were the reverse. Bursch and later Fisher showed that a group judgment tends to be as good as that of the best member rather than that of the average, giving substance to the belief that two heads are better than one. All the while educators were eliminating competition and stressing cooperation. Understanding came with the realization that there were really two questions involved. Where the teacher is interested more in the realization of the individual, she will stress competition. Where the total social output is more important than maximum development of the individual, she will stress cooperation.

7. *Frequent evaluation of status is an aid to learning.*—One of the least disputed principles of learning is that knowledge of results facilitates learning. As a corollary, the more specific, detailed, and positive the knowledge of results, the more effective the learning. For the teacher, this principle means that some form of evaluation is essential in every complete act of learning.

There are three additional issues now being rationalized.

1. *What constitutes a teaching unit?*—For some time educators have assumed that organization of the several fields around a single focus is an effective way of teaching. This is true, but only when the unit is a closely related pattern, with every element essential to the meaning of every other element.

2. *Do we learn incidentally?*—Psychologists say "very little." Can you reproduce the design on the face of a five-dollar bill? On the other hand, teachers frequently say they are teaching reading, or spelling, or number incidentally. Probably the difficulty is partly one of definition of terms. Psychologists have some data to show that people do learn casually, and probably educators mean casual rather than incidental.

3. *Is drill necessary?*—Krueger has done some rather nice experi-

ments showing that 50 to 100 percent overlearning is desirable if fairly permanent retention is desired. That is, when you think you have mastered the material, note the time used thus far, then give from half to an equal amount of additional time to practicing. Some educators insist that no special drill need be given because if a word or number combination is important it will occur again in the normal course of events. While the debate goes on, the important thing for the teacher is to see that new words in reading and spelling, new number combinations and language forms, *are* encountered again and again. If such repetition occurs in context, that is ideal. If not, she will arrange for some sort of repetition. In teaching appreciations, overlearning is unnecessary, for permanent recall is not essential in the field of appreciations.

[*May V. Seagoe is on the faculty of the University of California at Los Angeles. Reported from the* Curriculum Journal, *IX (November, 1938), 309-12.*]

DENVER'S significant reorganization of its secondary schools was recently appraised by a group of administrators and teachers from the system who report in the November issue of the *Curriculum Journal* the following features of the program:

1. A real break with the traditional subject matter of high school courses is being made in Denver—a break from the study of subject matter set out to be learned in order that it may be used in the future to the study of subject matter that pupils find essential in meeting their everyday problems of living.

2. English and social studies have been tried and found wanting as the basis of a core course.

3. Cooperative planning among teachers and between teachers and pupils is the foundation on which the new program is being developed.

4. There is much evidence of a respect for personality in classrooms.

5. Evidence is increasing that pupils are studying community life.

6. Many teachers are finding a new type of satisfaction in observing and promoting pupil growth.

7. Many of the old recitation techniques are disappearing from the classroom. In some cases the socialized discussion that has been substituted for the recitation is being conducted without proper regard for study and research. To put the matter in another way, in some classes discussion consists primarily of the pooling of misinformation.

8. While there is some evidence of parent participation in the planning of our new programs, this is not as true as would be desirable.

LIMITATIONS TO VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

CLEMENT C. WILLIAMS

In School and Society

IN the current decade, vocational guidance has become almost a fetish in educational circles. But despite the impressive writings in the field of personnel psychology, certain fundamental questions have not been adequately explored.

Two factors would be necessary for intelligent guidance, namely, a systematic catalogue of the qualities requisite for success in each of the various vocations, and an estimate of the aptitudes, urges, and interests of the particular youth seeking guidance. Both of these factors are unknown and largely unknowable, as a few observations will indicate.

Recently, while reviewing for a magazine about 90 articles on vocational guidance by protagonists of the idea, I was impressed by the fact that not one of these "authorities" proposed a plausible procedure for ascertaining either of the above fundamentals for guidance. Within a year, I listened to the president of a learned society describe the personalities of the teachers in a certain professional field who had attained such eminence as to have been recognized by a distinguished award. They ranged the gamut from shy diffidence to assertive egotism, from awkwardness to urbanity, from halt of speech to oratorical power. No common trait singled them out either as teachers or as practitioners of their profession. Beyond a few broad classes of faculties, such as artistic, musical, mathematical, and linguistic, little if any progress has been made toward identifying specific testable aptitudes and relating them to specific vocations. Although we may recognize that some special mental faculties may be requisite for a given kind of work, the same faculties may be applicable in numerous other fields as well.

The belief that for each boy there is one best life work not only misjudges the precision with which a youth can be fitted into the economic system, but it also may encourage a natural slothfulness in undertaking any serious job pending the choice of a life plan, thereby leading to chronic indecision and futility. More ineffective lives result from sparring about seeking favorable entry to a "chosen" profession than from planlessly laying hold of the world's work at some obscure facet, performing initial services conscientiously and solving career problems one at a time as they arise. Such a step-by-step procedure may even yield a selectivity of workers more in accord with nature's allocation of capacity than will any scheme of vocational planning which would seek to fit each man into his proper niche.

Moreover, the vicissitudes of life are such that, outside agriculture and the trades, few have ever been able to set up and follow a chosen pat-

tern in earning their livelihood. Chance rather than planning determines most careers. Charles Darwin shifted from medicine to the ministry and then a fortuitous invitation to go as scientific observer on the *Beagle* made him the eminent naturalist. Goethe prepared to be a jurist. Unsatisfied in the law, he successively tried art and public service, and then at 45 settled down to literature. This many-talented man wavered in racking indecision over his career plans, and his choices were finally made on impulse. Charles W. Eliot, possessed of a proven mathematics aptitude, sought to be a teacher of applied chemistry, for which he had a flair but no adequate preparation. He rose to success in college administration, for which a disfiguring facial scar and a personality complex, as described by Henry James, would have brought an adverse opinion from any personnel psychologist of my acquaintance. Is the world poorer through the lack of vocational guidance in the lives of Darwin, Goethe, and Eliot?

It is highly desirable, of course, to place before young people as complete and reliable vocational information as possible, but "guidance" is the wrong tack; the analysis and the choice should rest with them. Men feel elated when they have counseled a boy concerning his career, and the boy is grateful and temporarily happy. Identical feelings of gratitude and happiness, however, result when an older friend solves a baffling problem in geometry for a boy, but we may well question whether the result in either case has been advantageous. Unfortunately for this educational procedure, the entire problem of career adjustment does not gather itself in one knot which can be cut once and for all; it arises in different phases year after year, and a seemingly fixed law of nature makes the boy strongest who solves his own career problems as well as his own mathematical exercises.

Although misapplied positive guidance would seem to be futile and mischievous, negative or cautionary guidance, which is feasible in a measure, may be beneficial. Guidance *away from* vocations for which a youth is clearly not fitted may be an important function of higher education. Tests may indicate what to avoid but not what to follow.

Many boys rate high on practically every conceivable test for aptitudes; they have no blind spots in their native endowment. For such ten-talented people, interests rather than capacities will determine the best choice of vocation.

At best, vocational requirements, because of their complexity, do not constitute a logical system for rating the educational capacities of youth. Just as the amount of lumber in a log is not measured by whether the log will pass through the door of a furniture factory, so the diverse talents of a boy are not measured rationally by the entrance require-

ments of a vocation. If the colleges can select the educable and discover and develop their latent powers, we may safely trust the forces of social organization to adapt those developed powers to beneficial use in future occupations. It is better to expect the product of such education to shape the affairs of tomorrow than to attempt to mold citizens for a shifting tomorrow after the vocational patterns of today.

[*Clement C. Williams is President of Lehigh University. Reported from* School and Society, *XLVIII (November 5, 1938) 577-81.*]

Variations . . .

★ A late winter breathing spell consisting of a ten-day vacation in February has been found advantageous by the Ethical Culture Schools in New York City. A study of absences demonstrated that the greatest number occur at this time of year, due to the respiratory infections common when resistance is lowered. Rest is the prescription. School closing in June is somewhat postponed because of the new arrangements. (Picked up from the annual issue of *School and Home.*)

★ In Knoxville, Tennessee, the Child Personnel Department (Attendance Department) has conducted since 1937 a Distributing Center providing free clothing to nonrelief clients of school ages, six to seventeen, who are recommended by authorized investigators. The attendance officers, nurses, principals, and social welfare chairmen of the Parent-Teacher Association make the investigations. In the past when each school provided for its own needy children and each agency in the city could be called on for help, there was a great deal of duplication which seemed to be unavoidable. At that time many cases were being served which were not worthy and did not deserve or really need the relief given to them. An old school building is used for this purpose. Garments are gathered from more prosperous families. Laundries and dry cleaning companies have donated free service. A group of WPA workers remakes the garments and the Child Personnel Department handles it with the use of one paid clerk.

★ The International Drawing Exchange has been functioning for the past ten years as agency for the exchanging of freehand, mechanical, and architectural drawings by American high school students with students of secondary schools or their equivalent in many other nations of the world. The purpose of the exchange is to promote a better knowledge and appreciation of other nations and their cultures. Drawings have been sent by American high schools to Australia, Norway, Panama, Sweden, Scotland, Switzerland, Germany, India, Luxembourg, Poland, Japan, and Hungary. High schools in 23 foreign nations have sent examples of drawing work to this country. High school drawing departments in this country are assigned a foreign school to carry on the exchange. Walter G. Hjerstedt, Roosevelt High School, Chicago, Ill., is chairman of the International Drawing Exchange. (Brought to you from *School Activities.*)

STUDENTS VOTE FOR MORE GUIDANCE

CLARA N. CHRISTENSEN

In the California Journal of Secondary Education

SOME months ago a study was begun in San Francisco in an attempt to get the students' opinion of the guidance program. The work was begun in a small way, but because of the interest of school executives it was extended to include all the graduating seniors in the San Francisco high schools, about 2,100 in number. The results from several schools were not usable because of misunderstandings which resulted in inaccurate tabulations. Four schools, therefore were selected as a basis for the tables presented here. These were representative of the four main city districts, and the 1,214 students whose opinions are included in the report give us a comprehensive sampling of the different social and economic groups in the city.

Before turning to the tables it might be well to answer two questions: How many students voluntarily seek an interview with their counselors, and how many do receive some sort of assistance? Of the students answering the first of these questions, 78 percent said they had sought an interview with their counselor. Of those answering the second question, 97 percent stated that they had received assistance. From these figures it appears that the counselor actually fills a need in the opinion of most students and that most students are reached by the guidance program.

TABLE I

STUDENTS RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF EDUCATIONAL GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
How to prepare for college	57
How to prepare for graduation	79
How to select a term program	80
How to study	19
How to budget one's time	11
What books to read	12
How to keep from failing	32

It is plain that most advice of the educational type is sought and given with regard to selecting a term program and preparation for graduation and college. Although the other items are extremely important to the student they have not been stressed. Why? The reason probably is lack of time on the part of the counselors. Many have 200 to 300 students to counsel and only one period a day in which to do the work; some have no assigned period for counseling. Thus there has been time to satisfy only the most immediate needs.

TABLE II

STUDENTS RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
In regard to special abilities	31
In regard to selection of a career	46
In regard to information on	
a) Careers	42
b) Training for a career	36

Apparently the problem of getting along with teachers and other students is the most difficult adjustment to be made. Group advice on etiquette is often eagerly sought.

TABLE III

STUDENTS RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
Relations with teachers	29
Relations with students	15
Relations with parents	9
Relations with other relatives	7
Relations in society—etiquette, etc.	7

TABLE IV

STUDENTS RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF RECREATION AND CIVIC GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
Good citizenship	40
Good habits	29
Leisure activities	40
Avocations and hobbies	24

TABLE V

STUDENTS RECEIVING ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF HEALTH GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
Good health habits	19
The necessity of consulting	
a) doctor	22
b) dentist	15

The small percentage of students seeking advice on health is probably due to the fact that the department of physical education and the school nurse have been ably handling the health service.

TABLE VI

STUDENT OPINION OF THE VALUE OF THE COUNSELING SERVICE

	Percent of total
Students who thought counseling worthwhile	93
Students who thought their parents would like to consult counselors	42

Probably the most important result of the inquiry was the overwhelming majority of the students who thought counseling worthwhile. Those who voted negatively often amended their check by adding, "under present conditions."

The response to the second question, which was much larger than had been anticipated, opens up possibilities that have not been greatly stressed in guidance. Parental cooperation in the guidance of children seems to have been omitted by the school. It would be enlightening to see what could be done to interest parents in consulting counselors if definite office hours were set aside for this purpose and publicity was given to it.

TABLE VII

STUDENTS' OPINION OF NEEDS FOR DIFFERENT TYPES OF GUIDANCE

	Percent of total
Educational guidance	71
Vocational guidance	66
Social guidance	38
Civic guidance	36
Recreational guidance	33
Health guidance	32

Table VII shows the types of guidance the students themselves think they most need. The emphasis on educational and vocational guidance may be due largely to familiarity. The other types of guidance belong essentially in the group-guidance program, and in the past in San Francisco this has been neglected. Educational and vocational guidance are particularly adapted to treatment in individual interviews and so have been emphasized.

While Table VII shows the types of guidance students feel they most need, Table VIII shows the types of

guidance they actually seek. Table IX reveals the interesting fact that students are much less likely to avail themselves of the counselor's advice in the field of vocational guidance than in any other.

TABLE VIII

STUDENTS WHO HAD AVAILED THEMSELVES OF GUIDANCE OPPORTUNITIES

	Percent of total
Educational guidance	41
Vocational guidance	36
Social guidance	11
Civic and recreational guidance	33
Health guidance	28

TABLE IX

STUDENTS FOLLOWING ADVICE OF COUNSELOR

	Percent of total
Educational guidance	54
Vocational guidance	35
Social guidance	48
Civic and recreational guidance	44
Health guidance	48

Many comments were written in on the questionnaires. Most of these expressed appreciation for the guidance service rendered. Several criticisms ranged from statements that the counselors were too busy and not interested, or had the students' interests too little at heart, to one which said that a counselor "helped him flunk."

The comments on counseling itself seem the most valuable. They stressed the necessity for more time for the counselor and fewer people to counsel so that he might become better acquainted with the students. Some suggested having the same counselor from the ninth grade on, so that he might be more familiar with the students and their needs. Several felt the need for group counseling because of the value of discussion secured by this method. Most of the students wanted expert advice, not the fumbling variety.

It is interesting to note that these student suggestions for improvement of counseling in the San Francisco schools parallel the best advice of guidance experts in this regard—need for a smaller number of students to handle, more time for counseling, following the group through school, training of counselors, and group guidance.

[*Clara N. Christensen is a counselor in the Galileo High School, San Francisco, California. Reported from the* California Journal of Secondary Education, *XIII (October, 1938), 353-57.*]

To train graduate students in the integration of school and community is the aim of a project established this fall by Teachers College, Columbia University, and the New York City Board of Education. A public school will be used as a practical laboratory to study community needs.

THE SOCIAL PHILOSOPHY OF TEACHERS

FLOYD W. REEVES

In the Elementary School Journal

EACH year 2,000,000 young men and women are added to the adult ranks of the nation as workers and voters. Their social intelligence and social attitudes are matters of vital concern to the national welfare. Are these young men and women equipped to perform the duties that go with citizenship in a democracy? Are they socially intelligent and socially minded? Has their education been adequate in these respects? A careful consideration of the present situation must lead to negative answers.

Large numbers of adults understand little of the underlying causes of social and economic disturbances. They have given almost no thought to the ways in which political and social institutions function. They are easily swayed by slogans and readily become the victims of propaganda. Yet these adults are products of our educational system.

The time has come when educational institutions must give serious consideration to the problem of preparing youth for effective participation in community life. Schools and colleges have no function more important than the development of social intelligence. This function cannot be isolated and set apart to be performed by social-science teachers alone. It is an obligation that must be assumed by all teachers.

The aims of democracy can be achieved only through positive attention to the economic and social environment in which education functions. The teacher should be a person who is socially intelligent, who is possessed with an urge to improve present conditions, and who is an active and effective participant in society. The qualified teacher is one who is interested in, and intelligent about, local, state, and national politics; he has regard for the welfare of all people, and not for some particular class or group; he opposes all efforts to restrict freedom of speech and thought. These characteristics are merely those of a good citizen, but they are fundamental for the teacher.

Unfortunately, too many teachers are not thus qualified. The John Dewey Society's study of the social attitudes of teachers made in 1936 disclosed that many teachers are ignorant of the most elementary social facts. One teacher in ten believed that congressmen serve six-year terms; 38 percent thought the American Federation of Labor was an ardent defender of industrial unionism.

Teachers as a group do not appear to be more conservative than the general public, but studies of their social attitudes indicate that they are more conservative than some other professions. For example, on religious matters, they are more con-

servative than ministers, priests, and rabbis.

The present social philosophy of teachers as a group is far from satisfactory. The situation may be attributed to two factors: (1) the poor qualifications of the teaching personnel; and (2) the lack of freedom of teachers.

Studies of teachers' social attitudes show a definite relationship between social attitudes and both intelligence and education. Persons with superior intelligence and education tend to be more liberal than those with less native intelligence and poorer schooling. The implications are obvious: Better human material must be added to the ranks of teachers, and the education of prospective teachers must be improved.

At present, both low salaries and unsatisfactory working conditions discourage many excellent potential teachers from entering the profession. A majority of teachers at all educational levels work under conditions which definitely interfere with both personal and academic freedom. Any attempt to secure greater freedom is handicapped by low salaries and insecure tenure.

Political democracy has not resulted in freedom for teachers. The American educational system is not and never has been democratic. The pattern of administration is in many ways diametrically opposed to democracy. Almost invariably the dominant political and economic interests in each community control the educational policies of its schools. In general, these interests tend to exaggerate the merits of the *status quo* and to oppose any teaching that favors social change. In most communities realistic discussion in the schools of such matters as business ethics, labor policies, child labor, old-age pensions, or compulsory unemployment insurance would be labeled dangerously socialistic by organized business interests. "Patriotic" groups and organized religion also bring important pressure to bear on the schools, and indirectly on the social philosophy of the teachers.

Further, in general, the education of teachers is not typically such as is likely to develop a liberal philosophy. Teachers colleges have been too much concerned with techniques of teaching and administration. They have neglected the broad general education of prospective teachers, and particularly the social and democratic aspects of general education. Prospective teachers in fields other than the social studies get only a smattering of economics, sociology, and government. Even students preparing to teach the social studies are usually provided with a series of isolated courses; the interrelations of these subjects are seldom adequately stressed.

The general education of all prospective teachers should acquaint them with the various institutions and forces which influence modern life. Development of a keener social consciousness can be achieved only

through direct contact with present-day problems.

The curriculum of teacher-training institutions must be improved. They should provide young men and women with a realistic knowledge of social trends. They should give adequate consideration to the conflicts that exist in modern society. There should be no avoidance of controversial issues. The attention of prospective teachers should be focused on current problems, and they should study the application of democratic principles not merely to government but to education and industry.

Finally, greater personal and academic freedom for teachers must be secured. To this end a number of actions are necessary. All legislation relating to content of the curriculum should be repealed. Teachers must be prepared to fight for the establishment of democratic principles in the administration of education, including teacher participation in the determination of educational policies. They must make a concerted effort for legal protection through adequate tenure laws, for better methods of selecting and training teachers, and for fair procedures for the adjudication of specific cases of controversy. At the same time, the public must be educated to the advantages that will result from a greater degree of personal and academic freedom for teachers.

[*Floyd W. Reeves is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago and Chairman of the Federal Advisory Committee on Education. Reported from the* Elementary School Journal, *XXXIX (October, 1938), 97-111.*]

ALMOST two-thirds of the 300 pupils of the Des Plaines, Illinois, Junior High School have engaged in interscholastic athletic games with the teams of another junior high school—on a single day. The explanation: At a typical meet, six basketball teams of the school play short, "interlocking" quarters with six teams of the other school, and substitutions run high. On the same day many pupils of the two schools engage in swimming events and a pingpong tournament. This type of program is followed throughout the year in various sports.—*Clearing House.*

MUSIC AND THE FORGOTTEN PUPIL IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

ALEXANDER RICHTER
In High Points

THE forgotten pupil in the high school is the superior child. We are just beginning to take notice of him. A recent experiment in the new venture to give the superior child room for expansion is the High School of Music and Art in New York City. It offers, for the child talented in music, an entirely new curriculum.

For the first time in 25 years a profound change has come over the entire musical education scene. The principles of the conservatory are being seriously challenged. Musicians with only conservatory training are today handicapped. The prima-donna system has died out.

This does not mean that music is less in demand. On the contrary. But the demand is less for pyrotechnics and coloratura perfection. Rather emphasis is laid on the spirit in which music is performed, on amateur organization, and on participation in, and creation of, music. To supply the need for leaders in music we must have a new type of musician, a person with both a broad background of culture and a broad general background in the field of music.

At the High School of Music and Art the course of study goes back to fundamentals—and nothing is more fundamental than music expressed by the voice. Therefore *solfeggio*, part singing, choral ensemble, and chorus are our keystone. We consider the *solfeggio* to be the only way of truly developing the ear, the only way to establish the basis for future progress in musical development, such as comprehension of intervals, of harmonies, of form, and so forth. This *solfeggio* work is intimately bound up with elementary composition, melodic dictation, rhythmic dictation, and harmonic dictation. In short, our theory course is not theory as such but rather the entire subject of music itself. We teach music altogether, all the branches in one room. If it were physically convenient, we would teach even the instrumental branch in the same room.

The *solfeggio* makes for sensitivity to intonation and affords a direct lead into the study of a secondary instrument. For pianists, the secondary instrument is some orchestral instrument; for orchestral players it is the piano.

I should add that an equally important factor in modern musical education is rhythm, and more definitely, rhythm expressed through the body. Here we are less well organized than in our beginning course in sight singing, and are experimenting.

A second factor in the making of an up-to-date musician is social participation in performance. The day of salon music, introvert music,

"escape" music, is past. To enlarge the horizon of the pianist, therefore, a secondary orchestral instrument is given him. He is soon able to engage in vital musical experiences which, as a pianist, are denied to him. He learns his instrument in small groups of his own age level. "Practice" has become a thing of the past. The entire procedure is now pleasurable and completely engrossing. For the first time the pianist learns to play an instrument which must be constantly guarded as to intonation. He becomes conscious of tone quality and of being in or out of tune.

For the orchestral player, the piano is of great importance. Up to this point he has been reading music melodically, from left to right, but now he begins to understand, through keyboard training, that music also sounds up and down.

Students who apply in voice are given vocal training from the appreciative point of view. A graded course of study, in small classes, acquaints the students with the entire field of vocal literature. Voice students enroll in the choral ensemble and again group work with its attendant values of cooperation is stressed. Solo work is done in a normal and quiet manner and all students have opportunities for stage performances, with group self-criticism.

All students study composition, and there is a veritable overflowing of original compositions in all forms. When the time comes in the senior year, there will be a course in orchestration for all students, at which time every student will have an opportunity to become acquainted with every instrument.

All this work entails three periods of the school day, the other four periods being taken with academic subjects of college-entrance caliber. Children are recommended to the school from all over the city and of the hundreds of applicants 125 are chosen each term by means of as objective an examination as possible, based on innate abilities rather than technical accomplishment, and with careful scrutiny of the candidates' intellectual equipment and recommendations. All instruments are owned by the school and loaned to the children as freely as books, paper, and pencils. The percapita cost of running the school is now being work ed out and I have full confidence that we will turn out to be a relatively inexpensive school. The music department makes less demand on the financial resources of an institution than do the athletic, shop, and commercial departments.

[*Alexander Richter is on the faculty of the High School of Music and Art in New York City. Reported from* High Points, *XX (October, 1938), 21-26.*]

EDUCATION IN PICTURES

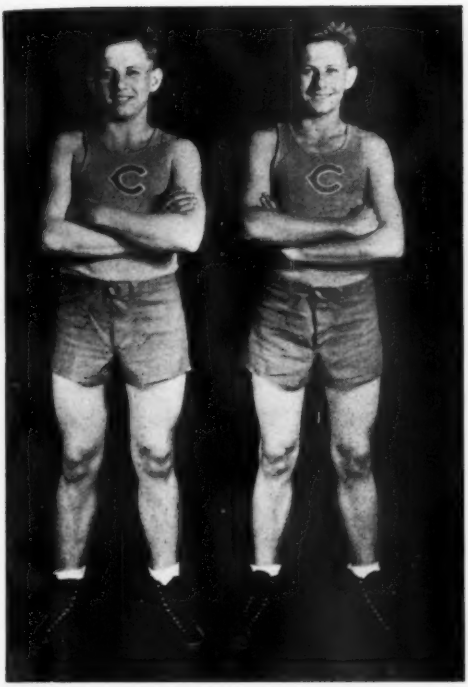
HEALTHFUL LIVING AND LEARNING

MARC BROUWER

CHILD health, called the primary aim of education, is assumed as the special responsibility of a broad branch of education which does not know what to call itself—health education, physical education, or recreation—or all three. Its greatest problem within itself is the coordination of the methods and purposes of its constituent groups toward the one objective of *health*—mental, physical, and social—for the America in school today. It has a still greater problem, outside itself, in the recognition of its place in the curriculum and its importance as a service directed toward this primary aim—child health.

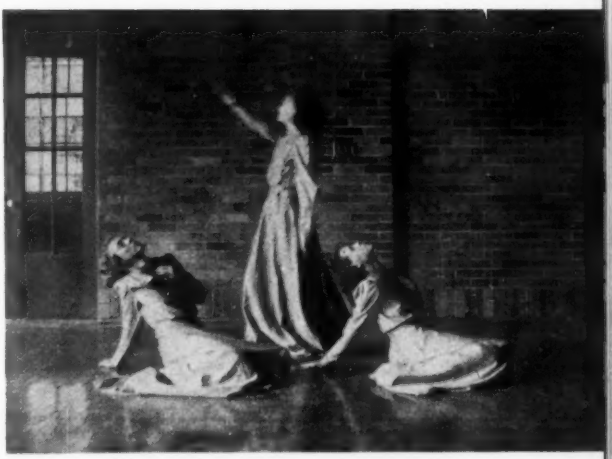
It wants to achieve more definite results toward this end than have been realized since the aim was recognized two decades ago. It asks of general educators more time, more money, and more talent to the end that healthful living may be considered not only as a concomitant of general learning, but be taught by instruction and activity as an essential to life today.

This past month the Educational Policies Commission added its weight to the forces advocating health knowledge and habits, community health, and recreation as essential purposes of education.



If these boys are in a school of a thousand pupils where there is undue emphasis on "varsity" sports, they stand only one chance in 33 of receiving much attention in their activity program. Physical educators agree generally that a certain amount of competitive activity is desirable, but deplore the frequency of situations where the few are given much attention to the neglect of the many. In a school of a thousand students, where girls and boys are equally divided, there may be 15 boys on a basketball squad, most of whom are there by virtue of their physical superiority. If the remaining 485 boys are left to throw a ball around willy-nilly, educators may well ask if the program has any educational value at all.

Whether the modern dance is freak, fraud, or fact is still a puzzle to most educational observers. Proponents claim much, though often vaguely, for its recreative and physical values as a creative activity. Bewildered spectators, not necessarily antagonistic, would probably be surprised to learn that the Louisville, Kentucky, high school girls at the right are portraying "Exultation." It cannot be denied, however, that it is dynamic, meaningful, and intensely vital to those who dance it.



Fifth- and sixth-grade boys and girls in University City, Missouri, are taught social dancing. It is a coeducational, recreational, and social experience, with more carry-over value than almost any other activity. Nipping a wall-flower complex in the bud is a special virtue resulting from teaching it early in the grades. Many administrators create opportunities for social dancing for the higher grades in a school atmosphere, preferring to give students the pleasure under proper supervision rather than having them seek it in undesirable environments.

• • •

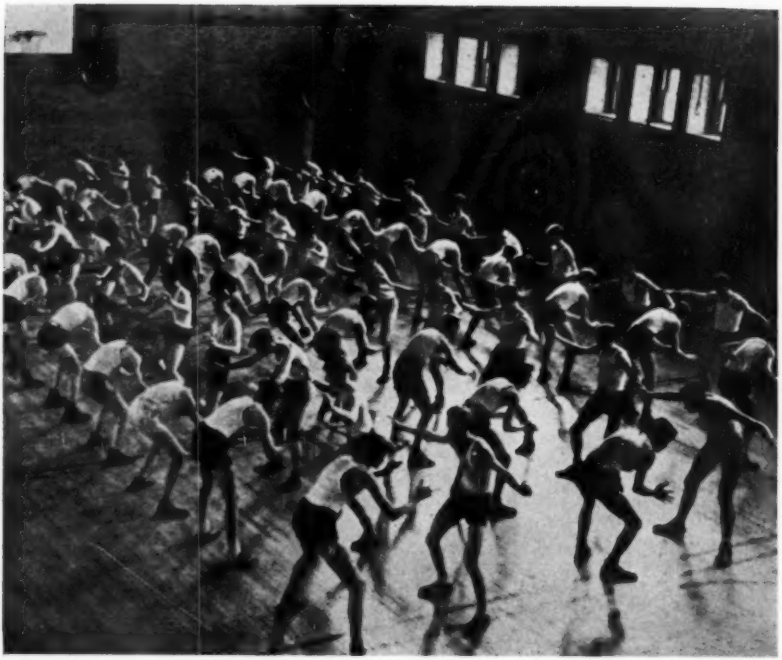
RIGHT.—A trend away from specialization with physical fortunates to physical unfortunates has transferred much attention from superior athletes to the crippled, disabled and undernourished. Heat, light, and underwater therapy all play their part in equipping the physically handicapped children for life in a competitive world. According to the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, there are in the United States 300,000 crippled children, 1,000,000 with weak or damaged hearts, and 6,000,000 malnourished. At the time of the Conference an estimated 1 percent of this number were receiving an education planned especially to make them assets to society. The children shown here are receiving sunshine treatments in the well equipped solarium of the Ann J. Kellogg School, a public school of Battle Creek, Michigan, devoted to the special training of handicapped children in accordance with the ideals set forth in the White House Conference. In this heliotherapy treatment, the light is radiated from four special carbon arcs and is so filtered that upon reaching the child eight feet away it is as like normal sunshine as it is possible to obtain artificially.

The services of the school nurse are not only being integrated with health and physical education work, but this office is seeking the cooperation and interest of the classroom teacher in the observation and reporting of cases, and in otherwise making the nurse's work complete and effectual. In this medical room of the DeWitt Clinton High School in New York City, a school nurse is on duty throughout the day.

Whether poor posture causes ill health, or ill health poor posture, is no longer the worry of health educators. Good posture and physique are sufficiently desirable for esthetic and mental hygienic reasons to warrant the active functioning of a corrective program in every school. Corrective specialists do not wish to make all pupils conform to some prescribed standard of excellence. In fact, recent research shows that there are innate differences in spinal curvatures, and probably in other body formations, which are natural and desirable. Corrective work attempts to promote physical activity programs individualized to the special needs of the pupil.

This young lady in nursery school is an America
living, to build her body to one having grace, p
time enjoyment—this is the ultimate aim of the
sist of the names of the bones of the body, or o
functional. She should be armed against superst
for what they are worth the cures and health ha
ful habits not for buttons, not as a game, not f
and happiest life possible.

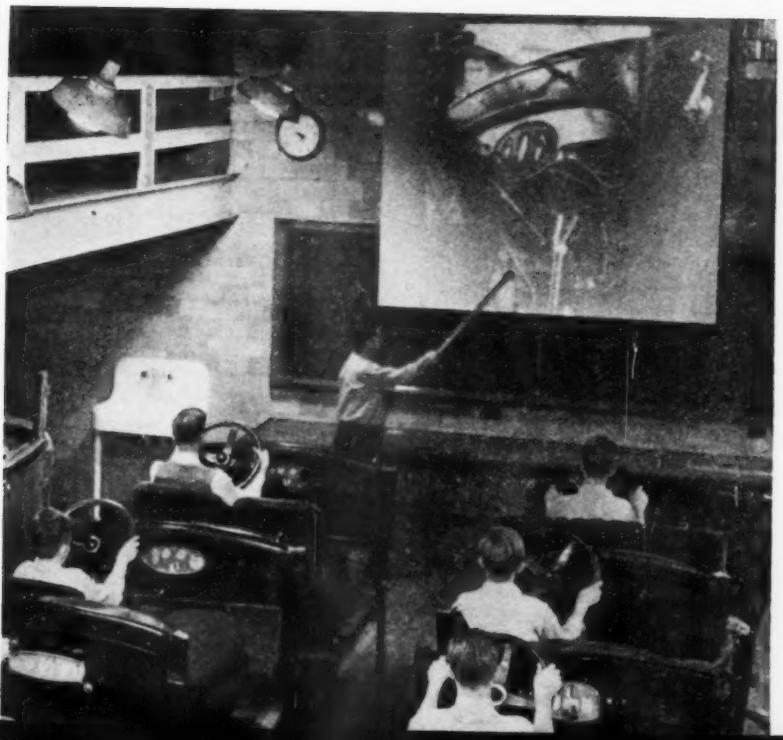
l is an American citizen. To keep her radiant smile, to equip her with a sane knowledge of healthful having grace, poise, and vitality, and to teach her useful and healthful sports for recreation and leisure- nate aim of the combined forces in health education. The physiology which she will learn will not con- f the body, or other data largely useless to her. To live healthfully, intelligently, her physiology should be against superstition and bugaboos, quakery and health frauds. She should be equipped to evaluate s and health habits which will be urged upon her later in life. She should be taught to practice health- a game, not for points and a shining gold star, but as a way of living which will insure her the longest



The majority of Kenosha, Wisconsin, boys are not left to pick up sport skills like the measles, while a special group receives the only instruction. The boys in the class pictured above are receiving training in handling their bodies, the specific activities being pivoting, feinting, and stance, with special reference to basketball. A changed conception of the domination of brain over brawn is suggested by some leaders in physical education who believe that education in body skills can contribute to cultural living—that the satisfactory performance of an act, kinesthetically speaking, is just as gratifying culturally as the appreciation of poetry or music.

RIGHT.—An accident toll which annually claims more lives in the United States than were lost by the A.E.F. in France during the World War has aroused educators to safeguard not only the state of health but the lives of school children by programs in safety education, frequently organized and administered by health and physical education departments. Because the automobile is the agent in 37 percent of the fatal accidents, education in its use is an important part of any safety education program. At the Lane Technical High School (Chicago), students receive laboratory training in the handling of a car preceding actual practice in every type of traffic situation on a specially built course. Dual-control cars are used to give the novice practice in the skills used in shifting, steering, and braking under the guidance of the instructor's hand.

Hiking probably has the highest percentage of availability of any activity, and offers rich rewards in leisure-time hours happily and healthfully spent. It is rarely, if ever, "taught." Yet through extracurricular interests, Boy Scouts and similar groups, and movements like the American Youth Hostels, it may save Americans from complete motorization.



This dentist in a metropolitan high school examines the teeth of 3,000 pupils each semester. In some schools, dental care beyond examinations is provided for pupils unable to pay for the services of a family dentist.

Robin Hoods of today are more numerous than the trees of Nottingham Forest. This is encouraging to educators who believe that this activity, along with other individual sports such as badminton, tennis, golf, swimming, bowling, handball, and table tennis, should supplant in emphasis many sports such as football and basketball which have less carry-over recreational value.

Cuts courtesy Journal of Health and Physical Education

LEFT ABOVE.—Deck tennis, club guard, volleyball, and kittenball are popular sports in playdays for girls, now widely employed as one answer to the opponents of interscholastic competition. By placing the incentive on play for the fun of it, not for the sake of winning, playdays attempt to promote healthful activity for a large number of girls and boys, increase interest in sports, and foster friendliness between neighboring schools. They are organized as invitational "meets," often run all day, and offer a variety of sports. Some physical education leaders, however, believe that the scheme of matching color teams, chosen at random from students attending the playday, preserves none of the values of interscholastic play, and is flat by comparison.

[*Marc Brouwer is a member of the staff of the* Journal of Health and Physical Education.]

THE NEW NATIONAL OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AND GUIDANCE SERVICE

JOHN W. STUDEBAKER
In Occupations

THE Office of Education has long been interested in guidance. This year, for the first time, funds were available, and preliminary to the organization of a rather complete service was the appointment of Richard C. Allen, as Consultant, under whose direction an outstanding guidance system was developed at Providence, Rhode Island. One aim of the new service was to supply the schools with competent guidance experts. Moreover, modern conditions of unemployment and quick industrial change emphasized the fact that a program of this sort was necessary for the efficient use of federal funds in the development and maintenance of vocational education.

For the current year, the following allocations of positions have been made in addition to the position of Chief of Service: two specialists in occupational information; one specialist in tests and measurements; two specialists in field service. In maturing the plans of the Service, a conference was called with several state directors of vocational education and a score of nationally known guidance experts have since been consulted.

The proposed development of the Service will follow three main lines: The first is the collation and dissemination of information about occupations. The second concerns a permanent, cumulative inventory of the individual who is to pursue one of these occupations. The third is education of the public to the need for occupational information and general guidance as an integral part of school programs.

There is no intention either of duplicating services already existing or of attempting to impose a certain pattern of guidance. There is, for instance, an immense amount of occupational information both on hand and being developed daily through innumerable agencies. Our problem is to secure the cooperation of these diversified agencies and to make the results widely available, in the most usable form, and perhaps to develop criteria for evaluating such information for use in the schools. So far as tests and measurements are concerned, we shall not have facilities for their construction. We shall attempt though, not only to get more tests and measurements but to encourage new and better forms. Most important of all, perhaps, we shall try to demonstrate the importance of recording and making permanently available the results of such tests for the benefit of the person tested, so that he may be the gainer.

In other areas, heretofore neglected, the Service may be of direct use. There is, for instance, the field of occupational information and gui-

dance in rural and semi-rural schools, a program now attempted in only a few places. A second area is the encouragement of teacher-training institutions to increased emphasis on education concerning occupations, and the development of criteria for the qualifications of persons desiring to be teacher-counselors, supervisors, and directors in this field.

An important element in the future of the guidance movement is the availability of federal aid under the Smith-Hughes and George-Deen acts. Two states are already preparing amendments to their plans providing for the use of federal funds, taking the position that the future strengthening of vocational class work is dependent on adequate vocational guidance. Should other states come forward with similar proposals a strong impetus will be given to adequate and permanent guidance programs.

By cooperating with state and local authorities in making occupational information and guidance really function, the Office of Education hopes to render an important service in a movement which the laws of economics and sociology seem to indicate can no longer be denied as one of the essentials in any modern program of education.

[*John W. Studebaker is United States Commissioner of Education. Reported from* Occupations, *XVII (November, 1938), 101-5.*]

AUTOMOBILE driver training need not be unreasonably expensive says Superintendent Grant D. Morse of Saugerties, New York, in *School and Society*. The salary for the instructor is no greater than for teaching other subjects, he states. The purchase price of the car can be kept within the budget limits of almost any school district. If desired, second-hand cars can be used, assuming, of course, that they are properly conditioned. If an inexpensive car is used and its cost is averaged over a three- or four-year period, the cost per pupil will be very moderate. Insurance with maximum limits of $100,000 public liability costs about $100 a year or less. Maintenance and operation costs are relatively low and can, if necessary, be borne by the pupils through payment of a laboratory fee, though this should be avoided if possible. Schools by the thousands will doubtless be offering driver training as soon as they and their boards of education realize the course is not difficult to offer or more expensive than are other laboratory courses.

THE ADMINISTRATIVE STATUS OF THE SCHOOL PRINCIPAL IN LARGE CITIES

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

In the Educational Record

THE history of school administration in large cities throws considerable light on the relations of the principal and central administrative officers. Prior to the establishment of the city superintendency (about 1840) the school principal was a head teacher in the local or district school. His administrative duties were usually restricted to the disciplinary control of the pupils. The real administrative control of the schools was in the hands of laymen—the ward member of the board of education, a standing committee of the board, or trustees elected in the ward to manage the school under the central board. In the larger cities the ward schools were usually of the one- or two-room type, with the building divided between the writing master and the reading master. The primary schools and the various Latin grammar schools, academies, and high schools, which provided secondary education, were usually conducted in separate buildings.

Between 1820 and 1840 the population of the United States increased about 77 percent, and the increase was especially great in the cities. Complications arose among the different types of schools with their independent administration, and the school committees were hard pressed to satisfy the growing demand for schools. It soon became apparent that the one- or two-teacher type of school was inadequate and wasteful and that some form of centralization was inevitable.

Problems of internal as well as external management rapidly increased and the members of the school committees soon found themselves unable either to give the time required for proper management of the schools or to settle satisfactorily many of the issues which arose in administration of the schools. As the size of the local ward schools increased, added authority in management was conferred on certain successful masters who were designated as head teachers or principals. They were expected to teach their classes, direct the work of assistant teachers or monitors, and to perform the acts of management assigned by the school committee. Finally, a few cities established the school superintendency and clothed the superintendent with power to grade the schools, reorganize the curriculum, supervise instruction, and advise the school committee in respect to needed improvements.

In cities which adopted the superintendency early (1840-70), the local school principal and the superintendent tended to develop as contemporary professional officers. The superintendent quickly realized his inability to administer the district

or ward schools of his city without the aid of a professional assistant in each school. Accordingly, he requested his board to release the principal from part or all of his teaching duties in order that he might perform the administrative duties delegated by the superintendent. When so clothed with power the principal tended to become a local superintendent functioning under the city superintendent. Boards were at first somewhat loath to grant the requests of their superintendents, but as the population of the wards increased and the local schools were enlarged the wisdom of providing a representative of the superintendent in each school became apparent. Today, most city schools are administered by principals who are regarded as responsible heads acting under the direction of the superintendent and the official regulations of the board.

In the 18 large cities which I have studied, the principal seldom attained the status of responsible professional head of his school prior to the establishment of the city superintendency. Thus the detachment of the principal from local lay control was apparently necessary to his growth as a professional officer. In virtually all these cities a complete detachment of local lay control over the school principal has been effected. In a few cities boards of education whose members are creatures of political machines have encouraged principals to use political rather than professional methods. Here principals enmeshed in local politics have tended to resort to political pressure to force favorable action on their requests instead of dealing directly through professional channels with the central office. But in most cases, in the 18 cities studied, the relationships between principals and administrators in the central office were strictly professional. From the study a few broad generalizations with respect to this relationship are warranted:

1. The tendency of principals to have direct administrative relations with board members has largely disappeared with the rise of the superintendent. Vestiges of the practice remain because of political influence in two or three of the cities studied.

2. In all the cities the superintendent is recognized as the chief executive officer of the education department and the principal as his chief representative in the local school. While the principal is the responsible head of the local school, restrictions are imposed on his administrative prerogatives by the regulations of the school board and the instructions of the superintendent. His practices must conform with general policies.

3. The relations of the principal with the central office should be made as direct as possible. If the central office accepts the theory that the principal should be the responsible head of the local school, then the relations which it establishes with

the principal should be such as will develop initiative and responsibility rather than mere subserviency. The intermediary executive officer between the superintendent and the principal should have the power to deal directly with the principal, and not serve merely as a "buffer" between the principal and the central office. Further, the evidence indicates that both supervisory and administrative functions are seldom effectively performed by one intermediary.

4. The relations of principals with noneducational executives in the central office are the cause of much confusion and friction, due largely to a failure to differentiate clearly between routine and exceptional matters. In matters for which office procedures are clearly defined — payrolls, emergency repairs, requisitions from standard lists, etc.—relations can and should be direct. Special requisitions, permanent repairs or replacements, supplies in excess of quota, and the like, properly should be passed upon by superior educational executives.

5. The status of the principal is a reflection of the administrative theory of the central office. If the central office wants the principal to be the intellectual and professional leader of his school, he will be accorded commensurate responsibilities. If the principal is conceived by the central office as a "super" clerk, he will be weighted with routine responsibilities and regarded as only the titular head of his school.

On the whole, the principal has an enviable professional status, but there are some strange inconsistencies. In some schools, the principal is held responsible for the condition of his building yet has no authority over the custodial service. In others he has no voice in the selection of his teachers; he is held strictly accountable for the quality of instruction in his school despite the fact that he must work with the teachers his central office sends. The influence of the principal on the making of the curriculum is insignificant in most cities, yet he is expected to interpret the curriculum to his teachers. Policies affecting instruction and the curriculum are often handed down by the central office without consulting the principals.

The study also warrants several generalizations regarding the personnel of the principalship and its administration.

1. There has been great progress in the selection of school principals in spite of critical conditions prevailing in a few cities. At the worst, candidates for the principalship in all large cities must meet certain standards of education, professional preparation, and teaching experience. Half of the 18 cities studied use some type of competitive examination.

2. In 10 of the 18 cities the principal has legal tenure. In the cities without legal tenure dismissals and demotions have been rare, and

then only after a hearing on specific charges before the board. Morale of the principals appeared to be as good in these systems as in those with legal tenure. Principals interrogated generally considered their positions more permanent than those of their superior executives in the central office. Professional status for a position appears to be virtually equivalent to indefinite tenure, whether recognized or not in state law.

3. All the school systems investigated have adopted salary schedules for principals, with maximums ranging from $4,000 to $8,000.

4. The principalship is not regarded as a terminal position. The executive positions in the central office are generally filled by the promotion of principals. Further, there is considerable advancement in the status of principals; they are promoted from small to large schools, and from elementary to high schools. Merit very generally prevails in the promotion of principals, although in a few cities "school politics" appeared to carry entirely too much weight.

[*William C. Reavis is Professor of Education at the University of Chicago. Reported from the* Educational Record, *XIX (October, 1938), 433-48.*]

ACCORDING to Reuben T. Shaw, President of the National Education Association:

1. Nearly one million children between the ages of seven and thirteen are not going to school because schools are not available for them to attend, or are so located that attendance is practically impossible.

2. Approximately three and one-half million youths of high school age in America are not enrolled in high school because high schools are not located where attendance would be possible or do not provide the courses in which these youths are interested.

3. At least three million children of school age in the United States are handicapped—blind, deaf, or crippled. Most of these children are not receiving the attention necessary to make their education a success.

4. More than one million school children are attending school where the school term is less than six months.

There are many evidences that few of us realize the sovereign power of the individual citizen in a democracy. When we look at the matter squarely no one of us would choose as a sovereign an illiterate person or one who is not familiar with what we often call a common school education.

STUDENT AND STATE IN IMPERIAL JAPAN

PAUL E. ECKEL
In Education

IN Japan, as yet, little emphasis is placed on higher education for women. But for men who are capable the demand is increasing so rapidly that there are not enough institutions to go around. For this reason, students are constantly faced with severe competitive examinations. Education is compulsory through six years of primary school. To continue in the middle school, the student takes an entrance examination. If he succeeds he is among the fortunate few. Often from more than 2,000 applicants only 150 are picked. This process is repeated in the higher schools and again in the university. The obvious result is that only the cream of the nation's youth ever get near the door of a college.

Democracy of a type is demonstrated here. There is no favoritism. Wealth and family prestige mean nothing. Merit is the only basis for entrance.

As in most states with totalitarian aims, all phases of education are directly under government control. The government wants men of high attainment who have demonstrated their ability to obey orders. There is no place for original thinking and academic freedom. The curriculum is carefully inspected. Textbooks must be selected from an approved list. The social sciences are particularly under government scrutiny. History is taught from only patriotic angles.

Universities have long been recognized centers of unrest and the breeding ground for what the government styles "dangerous thoughts." Socialism and communism have found ready acceptance among a certain class of student. To cope with these problems the government has adopted methods of censorship and patriotic propaganda.

Several years ago two of my students were arrested for communistic agitation. The faculty was put on the spot, and to exonerate ourselves we had to submit all our examination questions to the school authorities, who passed them on to the Minister of Education in Tokyo for further inspection. The day after the arrests were made, some 15 military officers politely asked if they might attend my lecture. They stood at attention for one hour, understanding little, for the lecture was in English.

This miniature army was in my classroom to impress all of us that the government would tolerate no more radical thought from either student or teacher. Of course, beneath all this pomp and circumstance a secret investigation was being conducted. After two weeks of hushed activity it was discovered that these wicked thoughts were leaking into the university through the kitchen. The cook turned out to be the culprit. This might not have been discovered if the cook had not become

overambitious and shot the vice-president of the university in the leg to impress upon him the injustice of the arrest of the two students.

Despite this rigid supervision, the student wields a power that is greatly feared. In his strikes and mob demonstrations he is able to bring before the public gaze certain issues, grievances, and radical ideas. By boycotting the classes of an unpopular instructor, or threatening a strike, the students may bring so much pressure to bear on the authorities that they are forced to replace the professor. At Waseda University, not long ago, a strike was precipitated by the charge that several teachers were dishonestly issuing passes to the baseball games.

The greatest strike in academic history broke out in 1933. It was precipitated by the dismissal of Doctor Takikawa, Professor of Politics in the Imperial Law School, for political unorthodoxy. The students demanded his reinstatement, and went on strike when the Minister of Education remained adamant. A few days later 6,000 students in the Tokyo Imperial University, 400 miles away, staged a sympathetic strike. A series of incidents precipitated pitched battles between the students and the police. Many students were arrested. The strike was given wide publicity. At length, when public opinion began to side definitely with the students, a strict censorship was clamped on the press and the students were ordered to resume their work in the name of the Emperor. The united force of throne and government was behind the ultimatum. Rebellion against the Emperor was farther than even the hottest heads would go. School was resumed. Professor Takikawa was out and his career ruined.

This incident showed the government that it must tighten its hold on the Empire's youth. The result has been greater restrictions and an increase of national propaganda. Within the recent year the latter has centered around religion. A vigorous campaign is being waged to call the students back to the worship and exaltation of their heroic ancestors, who lived only for national honor and glory. As a part of this religious revival the Emperor has been granting his portrait to private and Christian institutions which do not come directly under government supervision. This seems innocent enough, but the gracious grant carries with it certain commands. The picture must be housed in a specially-built vault-like shrine, and a 24-hour watch maintained over it so that in case of fire or earthquake the picture can be saved. On special occasions the picture is placed behind heavy curtains in the school auditorium and students and faculty must bow in worship and reverent adoration to the omniscient spirit of the God-Emperor.

In Japanese Christian circles there is an uneasy feeling that, following the bringing of Christian schools

within the scope of the national religion via the picture method, individual churches may come next. There is no way to reject the gift of the Emperor's portrait. To do so would only mean arrest on a charge of lese-majesty.

The true patriot must accept the Emperor as the supreme object of his devotion and be ready to fight and die for him. Any philosophy, religion, or school that does not emphasize this fundamental concept is not wanted in the Japanese Empire.

And so the graduates who pour out of the universities today are highly trained instruments of national policy—young men who believe in Japan's manifest destiny, who are rallying under the slogan: "The flag of great Japan will wave above all the world." The few who rebel quickly disappear. There must be but one deity, the Emperor; one authority, the government; and one destiny, world domination.

[*Paul E. Eckel is now on the faculty of Miami University, Miami, Florida. Reported from* Education, *LIX (October, 1938), 118-22.*]

FOLLOWING are statements from the speech of Professor Lewis M. Terman of Stanford University before the Association of American Universities recently entitled "The Gifted Student and His Academic Environment" which was based on the study of about 1500 gifted children:

Much the best showing was made by the Jewish population, the next best by the old American stocks that migrated to California from New England or the Middle West. The families from which the children came were predominantly of superior cultural background but of modest economic status. Less than 1 percent were in the unskilled labor classification.

Intelligence scores of the subjects six years after the original study in the majority of cases still hovered close to the 99th percentile. Very few were below the 95th percentile. The same is true of intelligence scores made by several hundred of the subjects at the time of their admission to college up to 10 or 12 years after the original study. The student who will be gifted at the college level can be identified almost as accurately at eight as at 18.

Nearly 90 percent of the boys and 85 percent of the girls go to college. Of boys entering 19 out of 20 graduate; of girls, nine out of ten. Although on the average nearly two years younger than their classmates, they are three times as likely to graduate with honors. Two-thirds of the boys and half of the girls who complete the college course go on for graduate work.

SHOULD TEACHERS BE CERTIFIED ON CREDITS EARNED OR AS THE RESULT OF EXAMINATIONS?

PHILIP W. L. COX

In New York State Education

SOME of the important reasons why most educators would prefer examinations if a feasible system could be developed are the following:

1. It is now generally recognized that the erudition of teachers is far less potent than the qualities of their personalities in determining the adequacy of the educational services they render. School instruction decreasingly stresses the mere control of facts; rather is the emphasis on social objectives—health, vocation, citizenship, ethical character, use of leisure time, and the like. Obviously no teacher can teach any subject who is markedly deficient in his interest in each and every one of these objectives. Examinations could be developed which would reveal at least the major inadequacies of any candidate's adjustments and interests.

2. With the expanding modern educational program it is desirable that teachers have many forms of educational experiences which are not obtainable in the college classroom. It should be feasible to credit under an examination system such worthwhile adequacies as recreational leadership, pupil guidance, ability to recognize and deal with mental-emotional deviations from normality, familiarity with modern arts, first-hand acquaintance with underprivileged populations, a knowledge of institutional life (prisons, settlement houses, etc.), a vigorous interest in social-political-economic conditions that control the lives of boys and girls, and a comprehensive awareness of the world such as may be promoted by travel, discussion, and reflection.

3. Fully as important, the setting of examinations to test such qualities by state departments of education would greatly accelerate the progress of teacher-training institutions, whose candidates for admission would then be selected in terms of personalities, interests, and social-esthetic experiences, as well as intellectual attainments. Such students would no longer tolerate faculty members lacking in personal culture and scholarship. The public would have greater faith in the schools if convinced that the processes of teacher recruitment were so conceived that distinctly superior persons were selected.

4. No socially oriented person who knows the character of college courses, *as distinguished from the personal qualities of the instructors and the students,* has much faith in their educational outcomes. Factual retentions are pitifully small unless the student, consciously or unconsciously, reviews the subject matter

after the course is completed. The mark is merely a general estimate based on such qualities as industry, docility, promptness, conformity, neatness, and accuracy, as well as memory and organizing ability. These elements are all desirable, at least in some measure, but they give little assurance that the successful student has such more rare and valuable qualities as enterprise, originality, skepticism, self-reliance, and cultural interests, without which there is little likelihood that any significant residue of the course will remain long after the final marks have been sent to the recorder's office.

Records of credits earned give too little information about the qualities that are important; they are too largely concerned with insignificant institutionalisms. No matter how we administer regulations that are meaningless, the result remains futile.

In what areas are examination results likely to give better criteria for selection than course credits?

1. The first criterion should be a minimum amount of scholastic memberships, this standard permitting qualifying examinations to be taken by candidates who have done approximately equivalent educational work without formal credit.

2. The second criterion should be successful student-teaching of 250 hours, including participation in school management and policy consideration, cooperative efforts to improve instruction, association in student activities and pupil guidance, and the use of tests.

3. The third criterion should be based on the outcomes of tests for mental ability and psychological adjustment.

4. Each candidate should be tested for speech defects, physical soundness, physical peculiarities and appearance, and general personal qualities. The criteria by which adequacy should be judged would have to be drawn up with great care, in order to protect the testing agents from charges of prejudice and unfairness.

5. The fifth criterion would be the results of examinations based on broad ranges of cultural acquaintances and abilities. While these would emphasize current literature, politics, science, recent history, and various fields of esthetics, they would also give the candidate opportunity to present his interests in areas not covered by the tests—camping, hobbies, business, etc.

6. The sixth criterion would have to do with the candidate's knowledge of, and familiarity with, young people of the age he expects to teach. Records of successful association with such youths should supplement a comprehensive examination covering those aspects of educational psychology, sociology, guidance, student activities, and human relationships which might best disclose the candidate's interest and competency in the areas directly involving youths as human beings.

7. The seventh criterion would in-

volve scholastic adequacies. So long as subjects are the basis for instruction teachers must have reasonable competence in the subjects they will teach. Specific examinations are proposed covering at least two subject fields for senior high school and junior college certificate candidates, three subject fields for junior high school certificate candidates, and all appropriate subject areas for elementary certificate candidates. Obviously, the intensity of the examinations would decrease in proper ratio to the number of different areas in which the candidate is required to show evidence of competency. The examinations should test not only the erudition of the candidate but also his interest in the fields and his ability to organize and to use his knowledge to interpret current problems.

These criteria are so interrelated that serious inadequacy in one would probably be reflected in the others. In any case, however, no candidate should be permitted to average one accomplishment against another so as to "get by." Serious failure to satisfy any one of the criteria should disqualify the candidate for one year, when a completely new set of examinations might be presented.

[*Philip W. L. Cox is on the faculty of New York University. Reported from* New York State Education, *XXVI (October, 1938), 31-33, 83-84.*]

ADVOCATING a glossary of modern and obsolete educational terms, Daniel P. Eginton has listed some "old" and "new" terms in the *Journal of Educational Sociology,* some of which are reprinted here. The "modern" term is the second in each case and is printed in italics.

Curriculum building.—*Educational planning.*

Subject matter.—*Experiences, activities.*

Lessons.—*Projects, experiences.*

To orient the pupil.—*To help the student to orient himself or herself.*

Recite, recitation.—*Report, discuss, group meeting or discussion.*

Textbooks.—*Books.* Point out the need, though, of periodicals, reports, etc.

Subjects.—*Areas of experience* can sometimes be used nicely.

Examination.—*Evaluation* seems to be a better term.

Formal discipline. — *Self-control or social control.*

Acceleration, retardation. — Impossible in a program which meets individual differences.

Grades.—*Years of experience.*

WHY SCHOOLS COST MORE

FRANK W. HUBBARD
In Secondary Education

THE public schools belong to the people of America. The people have a right to know what the schools are trying to do, how well these efforts are succeeding, and what amounts are annually required from public sources. This last point has become an acute issue in recent years because of depression conditions. But even during periods of prosperity there are always a number of people who think that school expenditures are excessive. It therefore falls upon teachers individually and collectively to help the public to understand the trend in school costs.

Nationwide statistics on expenditures for public schools have been available since 1870. In that year the cost of the schools was about 63 million dollars. In 1930 it was nearly 2317 million dollars. This is an increase of 2253 million dollars in sixty years. The trend in school costs was almost continuously upward over the entire period. Only during the four years beginning with 1876 and again in the four-year period following 1930 was there any decline in annual expenditures for schools.

Between 1930 and 1934 school expenditures fell off 26 percent—to 1720 million dollars. The figure of 1968 million dollars for the school year 1936 suggests that, since 1934, the trend of school expenditures is again upward. The 1936 figure represents a 14 percent rise from 1934 —a recovery of something less than half of the ground lost since 1930. This recovery in recent years, as well as the long-time trend since 1870, indicates that school costs will continue upward for the next several years.

What are the reasons for the steady increase in school costs, particularly between 1914 and 1930? Three important factors have exerted a major influence.

1. *Purchasing power of the dollar.*—A part of the rise in school expenditures is due to the decline in the value of the school dollar. The school expenditure dollar, like the living expenditure dollar of any individual or family, is constantly changing in value—that is in its ability to purchase goods and services. With the schools, just as with the average individual, it is not the number of dollars contained in the annual income that counts most but the amount of goods and services that can be purchased with each of these dollars. When the general price level is high, the buying power of the dollar is correspondingly low and the individual must pay more for the goods and services which make up his standard of living. Either he must increase his expenditures in those years or lower his living standards. Similarly, it is necessary in some years to spend a larger sum than in other years for the goods and ser-

vices needed for the operation of the public schools. If this larger sum is not forthcoming, standards of education will suffer. It is necessary to keep this fact in mind in studying school costs. Whenever school expenditures for two separate years are compared, the effect of the changing price level should be taken into account.

We already know that expenditures for the public schools were 1762 million dollars higher in 1930 than in 1914. The question then is, how much of this increase in expenditures is directly attributable to a decline in the purchasing power of the school dollar? We find that the cost of the 1930 school program would have been approximately 1357 million dollars in 1914 if the dollar used to pay for this program had possessed the same buying power in both of the years 1914 and 1930. This cost would be 960 million dollars less than the 1930 cost of the same school program. Actually, school expenditures rose 1762 million dollars between 1914 and 1930. About 960 million dollars then, or about 55 percent of this total increase in school expenditures between 1914 and 1930 was caused by the rising prices of the goods and services purchased by the schools—in other words, by the decrease in the power of the school expenditure dollar to purchase these goods and services.

2. *Amount of school services.*—The number of children for whom the schools were required to provide an education rose steadily during the period between 1914 and 1930. The number of days during which these children were in attendance at school, due to longer school terms and better enforcement of state attendance laws, also rose steadily. Furthermore, the increase in the number of children attending the relatively more expensive high-school grades between 1914 and 1930 was many times greater than that in the grades of the elementary schools. To what extent did these facts affect the trend of public school expenditures between 1914 and 1930?

The weighted aggregate number of days of schooling, 4957 million, provided in 1930, represents an increase of more than 94 percent over the number of such days provided by the schools of 1914. In order to provide schooling for each pupil in attendance during each day of the school year of 1930 a proportionate rise in expenditures would have to take place. Thus, even if the purchasing power of the dollar had not declined, and even if no improvement in educational standards or practice had taken place between 1914 and 1930, the schools in the latter year would have cost approximately 524 million dollars more than in 1914, due solely to the increased number of children enrolled and the greater regularity of their attendance.

3. *Higher educational standards.*—Standards of educating, like standards of living, rose between 1914 and

1930. As the country moved into the post-war era of science and power, potential plenty, shorter working hours and more leisure, corporate action and enterprise, increased government participation in everyday life, and increased economic insecurity, educational standards changed.

Many significant changes and improvements in quality cannot be indicated statistically and even on quantitative matters the available figures are often incomplete. The brief testimony here offered, however, substantiates the argument that higher standards of educating, like other higher standards in American life, are expensive to maintain.

[*Frank W. Hubbard is Associate Director of Research of the National Education Association. Reported from* Secondary Education, *VII (September, 1938), 103-5.*]

Current Quotations:

HAROLD W. DODDS, President of Princeton University: "No nation has placed such a value on formal education as the United States, but the emphasis has been on the word *formal,* not on *education.* We have put too much trust in diplomas. By attaching to the diplomas unmerited monetary and social importance we have created an artificial bull market in education which is endangering the true values of the liberal arts idea."

ALEXANDER MEIKLEJOHN, faculty member of the San Francisco School for Social Studies: "The deepest question in American life today is not economic nor political, it is educational. It is the question of the thinking power of a democracy."

CHARLES F. KETTERING, President, General Motors Research Corporation: "From my own experience, I have no objection to our present educational system and the way in which the teaching of facts is handled. The only thing that we don't tell the children is how little we know. We should tell them that what we teach them is the best we know, but that we know very little. I know no educators who will admit that. Consequently these young people take entirely too seriously what they have learned in school. They know everything there is to be known and therefore they won't try to experiment."

THE IMPLICATIONS OF STATE PLANNING FOR EDUCATION

WAYNE D. HEYDECKER

In the Teachers College Record

STATE planning is not an attempt to arrive at a planned economy as that term has been used in current economic discussion, but rather an effort to provide the wisest utilization of the land and water resources of the state with a view to the highest cultural and material standard of living for all the people of the state. In recent years the conviction has grown that the patterns of land use which have evolved under our essentially individualistic society have in many instances left much to be desired. Wasteful exploitation of natural resources has depleted our forests and resulted in the loss of millions of tons of our best topsoil. It has caused a frightful waste of human resources and has blighted whole districts, both urban and rural, which are now in dire need of intelligent treatment.

It is obvious that if our civilization is to endure, a higher degree of social control must be exercised over our natural resources. At the same time, our traditions demand that this social control shall not take the form of compulsion or regimentation. They demand rather that it be accomplished by the precise statement of objectives and the education of the people to the advantages thereof. Thus state planning is to a large extent a problem of education. It includes the education of today's adult population, and, more particularly, the education of children still in school so that as they in turn reach maturity the social objectives of the planning process may be firmly fixed in their habits of thought.

From an educational standpoint, the planning procedure seeks to provide permanent educational facilities in areas where stability of population is assured, with as nearly satisfactory equivalent opportunities as are possible in areas of changing and unstable population. The state planning process seeks to withdraw from cultivation or use areas submarginal in character—that is, to set aside in a new public domain those lands unsuitable for private use. This process obviously involves the migration and resettlement of thousands of persons. In the past many of our state reforestation policies have stopped short at this essential point. Lands have been purchased for reforestation but the settlers have been permitted to remain, occupying their isolated homesteads without normal means of support. The reluctance of these settlers to move is easily understood. But more important than the natural love of home and attachment to a familiar environment in holding them in areas where they have waged a losing battle, are the more practical considerations of financial gain which have resulted inadvertently

from programs of state aid to schools and rural highways.

The practical consequence of these policies is that there are well over 1,000,000 children in the United States receiving instruction in uneconomic schools with an average attendance of less than 10 pupils. Apart from the poor quality of instruction usually characteristic of these small one-teacher schools, there is a tremendous social cost which can be measured only partly in dollars, although the Illinois Tax Commission estimates a possible saving of at least $5,000,000 through abandonment of 4,000 one-room schools in that state.

County-wide administration, consolidation, the creation of unorganized territories, the establishment of minimum standards, have all been tried. Australia and Canada report surprisingly satisfactory results and moderate costs from the use of an elaborate system of correspondence courses for these isolated areas.

But these are generalities. A few specific instances will better illustrate the point. In a Wisconsin county, in 1933, it cost $4,000 to keep the roads plowed for the use of a dozen settlers in one town. In another county in the same state, it cost $1,400 to keep open the road to one farm which could have been purchased, with buildings, for about $800.

It has been calculated that it would take only 28 years for state aid to equal the full value of all the property in 33 one-teacher school districts in three New York counties. It has been estimated that in some towns more than 75 percent of the able-bodied men receive their only cash income either from work on state-subsidized roads leading to their own homes or from the business of transporting their own children to school. One farmer receives $2.40 a day, or 30 cents a mile, for transporting his son to school.

These illustrations are cited, not for the purpose of condemning the state-aid system with its sound social purpose of equalizing educational costs and opportunities, but of pointing out that in submarginal areas its application definitely hinders the realization of an equally important state policy of withdrawing such submarginal lands from cultivation and incorporating them in the public domain for forestry, game production, recreation, and protection of the water supply. Similarly, state aid for rural roads, while it may work admirably in bonafide agricultural areas, in submarginal areas results in a bonus for the maintenance of isolated uneconomic settlers.

Every interest indicates the necessity of evolving a comprehensive program for the resettlement of these thinly disguised public charges. And to prevent a repetition of these conditions we must establish broad regulations which will prevent new settlements in areas of the kind we have been describing.

A number of states—Wisconsin,

California, Michigan, Indiana, Washington, Pennsylvania, and Tennessee—have faced this issue. Wisconsin has authorized counties to establish broad classifications of land for forestry, recreation, and agriculture. In the districts set aside for forestry and recreation permanent settlement is prohibited. Twenty-three counties have taken advantage of these measures, and while it is too early to appraise the results the indications are that unnecessary rural roads are being abandoned, isolated holdings are being sold to the state, uneconomic school districts are being abandoned or consolidated, and settlers are finding new homes in more fertile areas.

As stated previously, all these shifts in population, which are phases of the state planning process, carry implications for the educational system. Here a word of caution may not be amiss. In the past, school development programs have often been based on overambitious estimates of future population. In recent years there has been a striking decline in the rate of population growth.

In the future there should be a much closer cooperation between educators and planners than has been the case in the past. The objectives of state planning should find a place not only in the administrative offices of the educational system but in the curriculum, so that children may be equipped with an understanding of the forces with which as adults they will have to work.

In the last analysis the success of all programs of state planning rests on the fundamental democratic premise that no democracy can rise higher than the understanding of its people. We must be prepared to scrap the fiction of democracy which now persists in those areas where the citizenry is no longer free and independent but maintains a precarious existence solely by reason of the bounty of other taxpayers. True democracy in education can be preserved through the establishment of school districts of a size suitable to the best pattern of use of the land in which they will function, and it is the duty of both planners and educators to work together for those readjustments of land use and population distribution which will assure the most satisfactory social and economic results.

[*Wayne D. Heydecker is Director of State Planning, New York. Reported from the* Teachers College Record, *XL (November, 1938), 109-118.*]

A NEW school in Newton, Massachusetts, is to have green blackboards made of plate glass, sanded and colored, so that the school interior will be more cheerful and cause less eyestrain.

TREASURES IN HEAVEN

BURTON P. FOWLER
In the Journal of Education

IN the rosy idealism of my professional youth I swallowed hook, line, and sinker the *cliché* that the teacher's chief reward comes in deferred payments, in checks of happiness, and the golden glow of work well done. I was led to believe, moreover, that every grateful parent would be eager some day to lay at my feet a quantity of rustless tributes, set off by paeans of praise and "all-that-I-am" speeches.

I am now less certain about these moth-proof intangibles. On the contrary, the teacher may be roundly abused if little Jim cannot tell *was* from *saw*, or finally ends up at Alcatraz instead of Ann Arbor; while if he succeeds, parents can think of the most unusual explanations for educational spurts. Among the miracle workers are summer camps, scouting, bicycles, religion, hair-cuts, long pants, silver slippers, anything in fact except the slow process of awakening a child's energies through the evolutionary and even painful business of school instruction. Has John finally learned to concentrate? It was the motor trip to San Diego that did it. Did Jean eventually acquire poise? It was because she had that permanent wave.

I have decided that this tendency of parents to withhold tribute from us Caesars exists chiefly because growth is such an imperceptible process. But a single vivid experience like earning a dollar or going to a camp is dramatic, hence its before-and-after effects are noted. If a boy who leaves home for camp in a generally messy and ill-mannered state returns with a coat of tan and a temporarily improved disposition, it is natural that his parents beam and feel that their money has been well spent.

In the ordinary school, on the other hand, the reverse may be happening. Last year Arthur knew his tables; this year, at least as far as Father can find out in a ruthless three-minute examination as he is about to leave for a bridge party, Arthur knows absolutely nothing. "Why, at your age I—" and the fight is on.

While the reminiscences of rich old men indicate that all they are and have they owe to the classics, the younger generation and its parents recognize no such slow process of development. Perhaps it is only in senility that we are given perspective to see, alas, too late, that but for dear old Dr. Blimber's stubborn insistence on mastery or Miss Spencer's creative touch in literature we might have become thoroughly ignorant and bad characters.

[*Burton P. Fowler is Headmaster of the Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware. Reported from the* Journal of Education, *CXXI (November, 1938), 261-62.*]

CAN PARENTS JUDGE THE SCHOOLS?

W. H. REALS

In the Clearing House

A QUESTIONNAIRE answered by 204 parents of high school pupils in three Illinois communities—a mining town, an industrial town, and a strictly residential town—provided the material on which this article is based. Only parents who themselves had completed at least a high school education were included. Although this group surely should be more intelligently concerned about the schools than parents without a similar background, the response to the inquiry was only 50.8 percent. It was also surprising to find that only 15.8 percent of the pupils enrolled in these schools had one or both parents who had received a high school education.

The questionnaire contained four parts. The first attempted to secure the opinion of the parent concerning the value of a high school education; the second, the value of the parent's own secondary school training; the third, the values of certain subjects; and the fourth, the value of teaching certain controversial subjects.

Four purposes of secondary education were listed and the parents were asked to check the *most* important. Sixty-seven percent of the parents, agreeing with educational theorists, believed that the chief purpose of public secondary education is to improve citizenship. In second place, but far below, college preparation was checked by 14 percent of the parents. Vocational preparation and improvement of social position followed, in that order. The results would have been interesting if the parents had been allowed to specify first, second, third, and fourth choices.

Fourteen commonly mentioned values resulting from a high school education were listed, and the parents were asked to check those they felt they had secured from their own schooling. Table I lists those checked by approximately one-third or more.

TABLE I

Value	*Percent*
Useful since graduation	91
General improvement of the mind	88
Made for better citizenship	79
Caused literary appreciation	62
Helped to secure a better job	54
Made for better use of leisure time	51
Helped in meeting social and economic problems	37
Trained for parenthood	32

Apparently most of these people are satisfied that their education has been useful. It is interesting to see, despite the fact that formal discipline has been discarded by educational thinkers, that almost 90 percent rank "general improvement of the mind" high. Of course, when these parents were in high school, teachers continually justified their subjects on this broad ground of mental gymnastics.

Seventy-nine percent believe the

high school made them better citizens, and 32 percent that it trained them for parenthood. It would be interesting to know just how this was done.

The subjects commonly studied in high school were listed and followed by statements to be checked by the parents to indicate the importance they attached to them. These statements were that the subject:

1. Should be made compulsory.
2. Develops reasoning ability.
3. Has practical value.
4. Is cultural.
5. Contributes to leisure pursuits.
6. Has been useless since graduation.
7. Contributes to good citizenship.
8. Is of value to a parent.
9. Should be eliminated.
10. Aids in vocational pursuits.
11. Is a waste of time.
12. Should have more time spent on it.

Seventy-two percent of the parents thought that all pupils should be compelled to take grammar. It ranked above all other subjects in this respect. Health and hygiene followed closely with 69 percent believing it should be required of all. Literature ranked third with 50 percent.

Geometry (54 percent) and algebra (45 percent) got the most votes for power to develop reasoning, although geometry also ranked first in uselessness since graduation.

Latin got first place as a time-waster, with modern languages and algebra tied for second. But few parents rated subjects on this basis. The percentages were respectively 7, 3, and 3.

Civics, as one would expect, led all subjects in its value as preparation for citizenship. But since 67 percent of the parents felt that preparation for citizenship should be the chief aim of the high school, it is hard to understand why only 50 percent of them feel that this subject, whose chief value they say is such, should be required of all pupils. More would require grammar to be taught than civics.

Industrial arts are valued chiefly by the parents as pastimes. They are regarded as being less practical than home management, business training, and health and hygiene.

Literature ranks first for its cultural value, being so regarded by 61 percent of the parents. Modern languages, Latin, and grammar follow. Fifty percent felt that all should be compelled to take literature, and 16 percent that more time should be devoted to it.

The results of the questionnaire on controversial issues are shown in Table II.

The figures speak for themselves. More than half are unwilling for the schools to discuss communism and fascism. Nearly half do not wish to have sex problems taught, and many who replied in the affirmative to this question did so with reservations.

It is the tendency of the schools to

TABLE II

Should the high schools:	*"Yes"* (*percent*)
1. Discuss communism and fascism	47
2. Allow teachers to express their own opinions	30
3. Teach historical facts	73
4. Teach "our country right or wrong"	27
5. Teach sex	55
6. Give nonsectarian religious instruction	42
7. Train pupils in problems of parenthood	59

take parents more and more into their confidence. Curriculum specialists advocate the securing of lay opinion. It seems to the writer that this study should indicate that such practices have serious limitations. Can we consider seriously the parents' opinion concerning what we should teach? Even the highly selected group included in this study consider grammar the most important subject in the curriculum. They still rank high certain traditional subjects for their disciplinary values. Only an insignificant portion of them would eliminate any subjects from the curriculum; for the most part they wish more time to be spent on all subjects.

It seems to the writer that parents' opinions about the secondary school have only one value—that they give us understanding of their beliefs and thus are the first step in bringing them to an understanding of the real problems which educators face. Parents should be informed and led in the direction of the ends that competent educators have set up. We shall be handicapped in our progress if we fail to carry them with us, for apparently, from this brief study, they are very well satisfied now.

[*W. H. Reals is Associate Professor of Education at Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri. Reported from the* Clearing House, *XIII (October, 1938), 99-103.*]

UNDER the 1938 program of the PWA, funds have been allotted, as of September 15, for 2,275 educational building projects. These will cost, including local contributions, about $350,000,000. This is the largest educational allotment which PWA has made in any single year since it began operations in 1933. Over the period since it was established it has released about a billion dollars for educational construction. About 70 percent of all school construction since 1933 has been partially financed by this federal agency.

PERSONALITIES: **Hugh Wood**, of the curriculum bureau of Teachers College, Columbia University, has been named associate professor of education at Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn. . . . **Morris Meister** has been appointed principal of the new High School of Science in New York City. . . . Professor **Doak S. Campbell** has been named dean of the Graduate School of Education and director of the Senior College of George Peabody College for Teachers. . . . **Nolen D. Pulliam**, formerly superintendent of the Madison School, Phoenix, Ariz., has been appointed the first full-time executive secretary of the Arizona Education Association. . . . **Warren W. Knox** has been appointed director of the division of secondary education in the New York State Education Department. . . . **Raymond N. Brown**, formerly superintendent at Thomaston, Conn., has succeeded **Nicholas Moseley** as superintendent at Meriden, Conn. . . . **Victor F. Dawald** is the new superintendent of the Beloit, Wis., public schools, following the resignation of **D. F. R. Rice**. . . . **Mowat G. Fraser**, lecturer in education at the University of Michigan, has been appointed dean of Winthrop College, Rock Hill, S. C. . . . **William E. Young** has been named director of the division of elementary education of the New York State Department of Education. . . . **Abraham Lefkowitz**, legislative representative of the New York Teachers' Guild and vice-chairman of the Joint Committee of Teachers' Organizations, has been installed as principal of the Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn, N. Y. . . . **Edward H. Jones**, head of the agricultural education department of the North Dakota Agricultural College and state supervisor of vocational agricultural education, died recently. . . . **Randolph T. Congdon**, principal of the Potsdam, N. Y., State Normal School, will retire on February 1, 1939. . . . **John H. Finley**, former commissioner of education for the state of New York and former president of Knox College, has retired as editor-in-chief of the *New York Times*. . . . **James F. Hosic** has retired as the editor of *Educational Method* and as secretary of the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the NEA. . . . **Charles N. Fullerton** has been appointed consultant in employee-employer relations of the U. S. office of Education and **Lyman S. Moore** has been named consultant in public service occupations of the Office of Education. . . . **George Jay Smith**, retired member of the Board of Examiners of the New York City Board of Education, died recently at the age of 72. . . . **O. C. Kerney** of Newcastle, Wyo., is the new editor of the *Wyoming Education News* and secretary of the Wyoming Education Association. . . . **Helen A. Field** has been named associate professor of education at the University

of Pennsylvania. . . . **Frederick Pistor** of the State Teachers College, Newark, N. J., has been appointed principal of the Elementary Training School of the New Mexico State Teachers College, succeeding **H. T. Bawden** who has joined the faculty of Ohio Wesleyan University.

THIS past month Professor Emeritus Ellwood P. Cubberley of Stanford University presented to the university on behalf of his wife and himself a $535,000 School of Education building. Professor Cubberley who has written or edited 100 volumes of the famed Riverside Textbooks in Education and 18 other books in education invested the income from author's royalties and lecture receipts so prudently that the total cost of the building was met during the donor's lifetime, although it was originally intended as a memorial. "After all," Professor Cubberley said, "since I wrote and sold my books partly because of my capacity as professor here, we feel the university is entitled to the profits. It's only right that we should keep my salary and pension for living expenses."

PARENTS of all of Detroit's schoolchildren one day last month received an illustrated copy of Superintendent Frank Cody's annual report which was in the form of a 16-page rotogravure tabloid called *Opportunities*. The publication reviewed in pictures with explanatory text the work, services, membership, costs, and expenditures of the public schools for 1937-38. This is said to be the first time a major city has made such a report to all its citizens. The Detroit Teachers' Association contributed financially to the publication so that it could be sent to all the homes in the city.

SUMMARIZING the facts and recommendations contained in its official report to President Roosevelt and to Congress, the Advisory Committee on Education has published *The Federal Government and Education,* a 31-page pamphlet. Other recent publications of the committee include *Vocational Rehabilitation of the Physically Disabled* by Lloyd E. Blauch and *Public Education in the District of Columbia* by Mr. Blauch and J. Orin Powers.

TIME conflicts between class schedules and the broadcast of educational radio programs prevents utilization of many programs in the classroom. These difficulties could be overcome by the use of transcriptions of programs. The Association of School Film Libraries, Inc., Time and Life Bldg., Rockefeller Center, New York City, which has been organized under the auspices of the American Council on Education for the distribution of motion pictures and other mechanical teaching aids to the schools, is so chartered that it may act as the distribution agency for radio and other transcriptions if such recordings are made available for school distribu-

tion. At the present time a study is being made to determine and catalog the recordings already available and to explore the possibilities and problems involved in their distribution.

ANNOUNCEMENT has been made by Dean William F. Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, of the dissolution of New College, an experimental and demonstration college. An aggressive attempt is being made by students and faculty to forestall the discontinuance of the college which is necessary, according to Dean Russell, because of lack of a subsidy to meet the college's deficits.

THE American Council on Education is undertaking a study of general education at the junior college level under a grant of $66,000 from the General Education Board. A group of 20 to 30 junior colleges, teachers colleges, liberal arts colleges, and universities will participate in a series of experimental studies in their own institutions. Professor Ralph Tyler of the University of Chicago will direct the study.

AN unusual plan for the financing of school construction has been established in Pennsylvania by the General Assembly. Under the provisions of the three acts of the plan, the federal government provides an outright grant of 45 percent to the school district in which the building is to be erected. The General State Authority is authorized to provide the remaining 55 percent under an arrangement whereby the Authority acts as owner and lessee. The school district pays rental at a fixed percentage for a period of 30 years. Approval of projects was contingent on the soundness of a county plan which embraced the desirable features of the larger attendance area and the more efficient unit of administration. During a six-week period, the Department of Public Instruction approved applications for 742 building projects involving an expenditure of approximately $92,000,000.

THE postage rate on books has been reduced to one and one-half cents a pound as the result of an executive order by President Roosevelt. The reduction will result in a savings estimated at $500,000 a year to libraries, organizations, and individuals who mail books. The order stated that the reduction would promote "the cultural growth, education, and development of the American people."

THE World Federation of Education Associations will meet in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, during the summer of 1939.

A NEWCOMER to the field of educational periodicals is the *Journal of the National Association of Deans of Women.* It is published quarterly at 1201 Sixteenth St., NW, Washington, D.C., and the subscription price is $2.50.

THE Department of the Pacific Area of the Golden Gate International Exposition of San Francisco, Calif., has published a bibliography for high schools and junior colleges entitled *Our Debt to the Pacific*. It has been prepared jointly by the administration of Pacific House and by the American Council of the Institute of Pacific Relations and may be obtained for five cents a copy with discounts for quantity orders.

LAST month's decrees by Bernhard Rust, German Minister of Education, completed the expulsion of Jewish students from German schools and universities. In 1936 Jewish pupils were taken from lower schools and placed in private schools and in 1935 university admittance was on a quota basis for Jewish students. This last has been repealed and Jewish students are now without facilities to complete their education.

THE name of the Los Angeles Junior College has been changed by action of the city board of education to Los Angeles City College although the organization, scope, and curriculum have not changed.

THE Illinois State Legislature at its last session enacted permissive legislation which provides that certain school districts with a population of less than 200,000 and over 10,000 may organize and operate a junior college. Interest in extending educational facilities to include the junior college level is said to be increasing in the state and a number of communities are now considering the desirability of such a move.

A PROPOSAL to establish a Southwestern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is seriously being considered by a group of faculty members of the University of Texas under the leadership of Professor Frederick Eby.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

December 27-28, American Association of University Professors, Stevens Hotel, Chicago, Ill.

December 28-30, National Council of Phi Delta Kappa, Chicago, Ill.

December 29-30, National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, Williamsburg, Va.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

February 21-23, 1939, National Council of Parent Education, Detroit, Michigan.

February 22-25, National Vocational Guidance Association, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 22-25, American Council of Guidance and Personnel Associations, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 22-25, Progressive Education Association, Detroit, Mich.

February 23-25, International Council for Exceptional Children, Hotel Statler, Detroit, Mich.

February 23-25, National Association of Principals of Schools for Girls, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 25-26, National Asso-

ciation of School Secretaries, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 25-March 1, Department of Secondary-School Principals, NEA, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 25-March 2, Department of Rural Education, NEA, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 25-March 2, Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, Cleveland, Ohio.

February 26-March 2, American Association of School Administrators, NEA, Cleveland, Ohio.

March 2-4, American Association of Junior Colleges, Grand Rapids, Michigan.

March 9, Regional Conference of the Progressive Education Association, Garden City, Long Island.

March 15-18, Public School Business Officials, Oakland, Calif.

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